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PROGRESS REPORT ON THE STRENGTHENING OF SUBREGIONAL ECONOMIC INTEGRATION PROCESS AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE AFRICAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY

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INTRODUCTION

1. With the creation on 17 February 1989 of the Maghreb Union (MU), Africa took yet another step towards the integration of its economies and passed a major milestone in its march towards the ultimate objective of the Final Act of Lagos (FAL): the establishment of an African Economic Community. Every subregion now has, in effect, a major economic grouping. While the areas covered are roughly comparable, the economic groupings, however, vary considerably in population size and in economic endowment or deficiencies. Some of them abound with energy resources but have limited agricultural potential. Others have substantial agricultural, forest and livestock resources but the local processing of those resources is slow-coming. Yet others (in this case the majority) have problems to develop trade among their members for lack of adequate transport infrastructure or financial and commercial mechanisms.

2. Furthermore, because they were established at different times, these groupings are not at the same stage of economic integration. While some are approaching the stage of a customs union, others are still discussing the mechanisms of a free trade area if they are not simply daunted by the prospects of the loss of customs revenue to some of the member States. Other groupings have abandoned trade promotion for sectoral integration. Interestingly, it is not necessarily the oldest groupings that have made the most significant progress towards the objective of economic integration. The strategy pursued and the commitment of member States have often played a crucial role.

3. In spite of such a lack of uniformity in economic integration among the various subregions and may be precisely because of that, it has become urgent to harmonize the process of economic integration among the subregions. Even those subregional groups currently existing, remain economically weak and need to strengthen and complement each other. The African Economic Community cannot take off and function effectively if the components on which it should be launched are overly disparate.

4. Ten years after the adoption of the FAL, time seems to have come to assess to what extent it has been implemented and its provisions incorporated by African States in their national, subregional and regional policies. Although it spells out, as an appendix, some of the modalities for the actual implementation of the Lagos Plan of Action (LPA), especially as regards the objective of collective self-reliance, the FAL is much less known than the LPA. In order to review Africa's achievements in respect of the provisions of the FAL, it seems necessary to recall its content and purposes.

5. After reaffirming their "full adherence to the LPA", the Heads of State and Government have renewed their "commitment to set by the year 2000, on the basis of a treaty to be concluded, an African Economic Community ...". They "authorized" the Secretary-General of the OAU to "appoint a Drafting Committee at ministerial level to prepare the draft of the treaty ...". Finally, Heads of State and Government set up stages through which the establishment of the African Economic Community should be achieved. During the decade of 1980s, they decided to:

(a) Strengthen the existing regional economic communities and establish other economic groupings in the other regions of Africa so as to cover the continent as a whole (Central Africa, Eastern Africa, Southern Africa and Northern Africa);

(b) Strengthening effectively sectoral integration at the continental level and particularly in the fields of agriculture, food, transport and communications, industry and energy; and

(c) Promote co-ordination and harmonization among the existing and future economic groupings for a gradual establishment of an African Common Market.

6. During the decade of the 1990s, they decided to:

(a) Take steps for further sectoral integration:

(i) Harmonization of our strategies, policies and economic development plans;

(ii) Promotion of joint projects particularly in the above-mentioned economic fields; and

(iii) Harmonization of our financial monetary policies.

(b) Take measures to effect the establishment of an African common market and other measures that would lead to the attainment of the aims and objectives of the African Economic Community.

7. This paper will examine the following:

(a) The structure of the African economic integration at subregional and regional levels;

(b) Review the achievements of the African Economic Communities;

(c) Describe the causes of the slow process of economic integration in Africa; and

(d) Make proposals for strengthening sectoral integration and for setting in motion the process of economic integration in Africa.

I. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF STRUCTURES

8. As regards the structures for fostering economic integration in Africa, necessary steps had already been taken prior to the FAL. The latter only helped speed up the process in some subregions.

9. Indeed Africa did not even wait for the independence wave of the 1960s to institute economic co-operation. Many countries that were still under colonial domination were made to establish formal economic relations with their neighbours. Since independence, this movement has extended over wider entities, namely subregions.

A. Economic co-operation in Eastern and Southern Africa

10. The origin of this co-operation can be traced back to 1917 when Kenya and Uganda formed a Customs Union that Tanzania joined in 1927. The Union was characterized by common customs tariffs, common transport and communications services, and a single currency. An agreement signed among the three countries in 1965 in Kampala, sought to solve the problem of inequitable distribution of production units and Union benefits. Finally, a treaty signed in June 1967 and which came into force in December of the same year, established the East African Community which, besides maintaining the customs union, was responsible for providing major joint services by way of an airline, a railway company, posts and telecommunications, ports and later on, a development bank.

11. The success of the East African Community was admired by other countries of the subregion. Thus, in a bid to extend such co-operation to other countries, a meeting was held in Lusaka in 1965 which set up an Interim Ministerial Council assisted by an economic committee pending the negotiation and signing of a treaty to create the East African Economic Community. During its first meeting held in Addis Ababa, in 1966, the Interim Ministerial Council prepared a protocol of association among East African countries which was to serve as an institutional framework for mutual co-operation until such time as a treaty would be duly concluded. Unfortunately, this initiative was not followed up despite recommendations of the first Economic Committee meeting held in Addis Ababa, in November 1967. Paradoxically, the dismantling of the East African Community in 1977 gave a thrust to the recommencement of negotiations to set up an economic grouping comprising Eastern and Southern Africa. In fact, with the mandate entrusted to it in 1966 by the Interim Ministerial Council to prepare a draft treaty to set up an East African Economic Community, the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) gave a new lease of life in 1978 to the negotiations by organizing a series of sectoral and global meetings at the technical and ministerial levels. The outcome of those negotiations was the signing at Lusaka in December 1981, by 10 States, of the Treaty for the establishment of the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States(PTA). The Treaty came into force in 1982. Other States within or outside the Eastern and Southern African subregion stricto sensu have since acceded to the Treaty or signed it, bringing the current membership of the PTA to 18 member States.

B. Economic co-operation in Central Africa

12. Economic co-operation in the Central African subregion was, at the outset, marked by the fact that the countries concerned belonged to various areas of influence.

13. That is why the countries of French Equatorial Africa (AFE), at the instance of the colonial power, set up in June 1959, the Equatorial Customs Union (UDE). After achieving independence, they held with Cameroon talks which led, in December 1964, to the signing of a treaty establishing the Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC); that treaty came into force on 1 January 1966. Today, UDEAC has six member States with Equatorial Guinea having recently joined the five founding members.

14. On their part, Burundi, Rwanda and Zaire began from 1970 negotiations in which the security issues that predominated at the outset have gradually given way to economic issues. The Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL), resulting from an agreement signed in

September 1976, was the outcome of those negotiations. Protocols to the agreement and other instruments subsequently adopted have broadened the scope of co-operation among CEPGL member States.

15. The need to provide Central Africa with an economic integration entity comprising all countries of the subregion, led the 11 Heads of State of the Central African subregion, including Angola, to sign in December 1981 the Libreville Declaration by which they formally pledged to integrate their countries in a single economic entity. Negotiations beginning in March 1982 ended in October 1983 with the Treaty establishing the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) which came into force in December 1984. ECCAS has 10 member States, namely the UDEAC and CEPGL countries that have been joined by Sao Tome and Principe.

C. Economic co-operation in West Africa

16. In West Africa, economic co-operation has also suffered from the vicissitudes of colonization.

17. Thus, the territories of French West Africa (AOF), set up in 1959 the Customs Union of West African States (UDEAO). After the instruments were revised in 1966 to incorporate lessons learned from experience, UDEAO was transformed in 1972 into the West African Economic Community (CEAO). Today, it has seven member States, all French-speaking. Similarly, Liberia and Sierra Leone set up in 1973 the Mano River Union that Guinea joined a few years later.

18. But like other subregions, West Africa also decided to organize itself into a single economic integration entity. It was within this perspective, that a first meeting devoted to economic co-operation in West Africa was held in Niamey in October/November 1966. That meeting made several recommendations designed to pave the way for a West African Economic Community. In April/May 1967, a second similar meeting held in Accra adopted a Protocol of Association in order to establish the West African Economic Community. It also instituted an Interim Ministerial Council which held its first meeting in November 1967 which set up a multidisciplinary team to prepare sectoral studies to be used in the negotiations to create the West African Economic Community. It took until 1975 for those negotiations to result in the conclusion of the Treaty establishing the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Since its inception, the Community has 16 member States one of which also belongs to the Arab Maghreb Union.

D. Economic co-operation in North Africa

19. On ECA's initiative, a meeting, limited to the four Maghreb countries (algeria, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia) was held in Tangier at the beginning of 1964 to consider economic co-operation issues. Experts who participated in the meeting recommended that a conference of Maghreb Ministers of Economic Planning should be organized. This was done on 29 September of the same year in Tunis. The ministers resolved to institute the Maghreb Special Consultative Committee as a provisional institutional co-ordinating structure and an agreement was signed. This agreement governed trade among the partners and started a gradual harmonization of their trade policies.

20. It was in Tangier in June 1966, that the first meeting was held on the establishment of multilateral economic co-operation ties among all countries of North Africa. Even though the

recommendations on institutional mechanisms were not adopted, the meeting, nevertheless, suggested that the six countries concerned should exchange information on their respective potentials in the area of maritime transport in order to promote maritime co-operation and accord each other air traffic facilities so as to improve air transport links among them.

21. At the end of that meeting, ECA proposed to undertake a certain number of sectoral studies to identify co-operation possibilities that could serve as support to a negotiation process identical to that which had taken place in other subregions. Unfortunately, for various reasons, the talks did not make much progress and the development of co-operation was limited to the bilateral framework. However, in 1981, ECA undertook a fresh series of studies, with the same objective, but within a different and perhaps a more favourable context. For, it had been hoped that the agreement concluded between Egypt and the Sudan could reactivate the negotiating process. And indeed, in 1987, the North African MULPOC Council of Plenipotentiaries adopted a resolution calling on member States to start talks in order to establish a preferential trade area in North Africa. The ECA Conference of Ministers endorsed that resolution and the Intergovernmental Negotiating Team (INT), held its first meeting in December 1987 and a second in February 1988.

22. Concurrently to this initiative, the Maghreb countries started talks which led to the signing of the Treaty establishing the Arab Maghreb Union (UMA) on 17 February 1989.

23. One of the consequences of the birth of UMA was that Egypt and the Sudan are not members of this new entity whereas Mauritania, which belongs also to West Africa, has become a member. The momentum to establish a preferential trade area in North Africa has also been slowed down. Egypt and the Sudan will hopefully join the UMA which is not the only case where a subregional organization does not cover all the countries in the subregion: three countries in Eastern and Southern Africa do not belong to the PTA.

E. The African Economic Community

24. In implementation of the FAL, negotiations have been underway since November 1988, within OAU, to set up the Community. It would be wrong, however, to think that continentally economic integration efforts started today.

25. In fact, as far back as April 1958, the first Conference of Independent African States held in Accra recognized the need to promote economic co-operation among African countries. The meeting recommended that each State should set up an economic and research committee, and at the African level, a joint economic and research committee comprising members from all independent African States in order to monitor Africa's economic situation and to make recommendations towards the strengthening of economic co-operation among those countries.

26. The Second Conference of Independent African States held in June 1960 in Addis Ababa, had even more participants. Economic co-operation issues were high on the agenda. The Conference made specific recommendations for the establishment of an African development bank and an African commercial bank. The establishment of an African economic co-operation council was also suggested. That council would have to convene meetings of experts to consider the institution of preferential tariffs among African countries.

27. Shortly afterwards, however, the Monrovia, Casablanca and Brazzaville groups emerged to threaten the unity that the continent needed in order to achieve such economic integration. The May 1963 Conference organized in Addis Ababa, which led to the birth of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) very timely put a stop to those divergent trends. The OAU Charter though essentially political, gave pride of place to economic co-operation.

28. After a series of meetings at expert and ministerial levels, which defined the concept, content and scope of the African Economic Community, the Drafting Committee has drawn up a draft treaty whose main provisions can be summarized as follows:

The establishment of the Community will be gradually achieved over a period of 34 years divided into the following stages:

(a) Strengthening of the existing subregional communities (five years);

(b) Stabilization of fiscal regime applied to intra-subregional trade (eight years);

(c) Establishment of a free-trade area at the level of each subregional economic grouping (10 years);

(d) Co-ordination and harmonization of tariff and non-tariff regimes between the subregional economic groupings (two years);

(e) Establishment of an African Common Market (four years); and

(f) Establishment of the Africa Economic Community (five years).

29. At the institutional level, the draft treaty contains a provision whereby the Community and a restructured OAU will constitute a single organization, with the same organs.

30. The draft treaty makes also provisions for the relationship between the Community and subregional economic groupings which are due to become subsidiaries of the former.

31. Finally, the treaty for the establishment of the African Economic Community is due to be signed in 1991.

32. In view of the foregoing, one may consider that the objectives of the organizational structure of the FAL are close to be attained; all subregions have established their economic groupings and the African Economic Community is about to be created. But has economic integration process made any significant progress in the continent?

II. REVIEW OF THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF AFRICAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITIES

33. Judging from the number of meetings organized on this subject or the institutional mechanisms and structuring established in this respect, Africa has spared no effort to foster its economic integration. But, on scrutiny, the balance sheet reveals rather modest achievements.

34. With regard to their economic integration (and as noted earlier) not all the subregions have advanced at the same pace, at least, in institutional terms.

35. Though the PTA for Eastern and Southern African States has just recently been established, it has already prepared a scheme to liberalize trade among its members. This move has, indeed, been opposed by the less-developed of the member countries. In fact, those countries fear that the opening of their borders would lead to a massive penetration of their markets by products from the more developed countries. A study has, therefore, been commissioned to review the proposed time-table and propose compensatory measures likely to alleviate the effects of trade liberalization on the economies and finance of member States. At the same time, PTA has set up its own development bank which just became operational. Studies are also underway in the areas of transport and communications, agriculture and industry, and they all seek to further integrate structures for the production of goods and services. In another connection, the PTA clearing house effects the bulk of transactions among member States which use very little foreign exchange in their mutual trade dealings. PTA travellers checks are also being issued for use within the zone so as to reduce recourse to foreign means of payment. Generally speaking, the commendable examples aforementioned notwithstanding, it is too early to conduct a fair evaluation of the PTA experience. The situation would have been different had the PTA been established under the defunct East African Community which had already succeeded in setting up deeply integrated structures in certain sectors. The fact that SADCC has given up its own trade liberalization programme to implement that of PTA shows that it is possible for two or more organizations to carry out joint programmes.

36. However, in Central Africa where co-operation has been longer instituted, the integration process has been very slow. The UDEAC evaluation report prepared by ECA in 1981 revealed still current deficiencies of this sub-grouping: the customs union is not effective because there exist tariff barriers within the grouping and a complementary tax which empties the common external tariff of meaning. None of the community's industrial projects identified in 1975 have been executed because the general secretariat in particular, lacked the prerogatives to make them advance; the Union's market has been fragmented by transnational companies for their own benefit because the single tax has failed to play the role assigned to it; finally, the level of intra-community trade is woefully low and its relative share in the external trade of member States seems to be dwindling. The trade liberalization scheme of CEPGL, which, moreover, was not among its priorities, has not really taken off, and even when it becomes effective physical obstacles will render trade expansion difficult until they are overcome. On the other hand, studies underway at CEPGL, should lead in a shorter or longer time, to the joint exploitation of certain natural resources such as methane gas from the Kivu lake, forests and peat. CEPGL and UDEAC are both endowed with development banks. ECCAS, the most recent economic integration organization of the subregion is, in conjunction with the two other organizations, striving to ensure some co-ordination and should try to accomplish a physical integration of the subregion without which, intra-community trade cannot be expanded nor the

productive sectors restructured. Besides basic issues relating to the choice of programmes liable to promote economic integration, effectively, there is, in this subregion a problem of harmonizing activities amongst three similar organizations which use different resources: whereas trade liberalization has, for long, been the driving force of economic integration within UDEAC, it has only just been recently included in the CEPGL programme.

37. Just like Central Africa, West Africa has three economic integration entities namely, ECOWAS, CEAO and the Mano River Union. Pursuant to an ECOWAS resolution which seeks to maintain only one such organization in West Africa, a programme to harmonize the sector activities of all intergovernmental organizations of the subregion is being implemented, the ultimate objective being to transform the other West African intergovernmental organizations into ECOWAS specialized agencies. In this subregion, there is a problem of trade harmonization and programming: CEAO happens to be the oldest organization and is well ahead of the others. Rather than slow down the CEAO programme in order to align it with that of ECOWAS, the ECOWAS programme should be accelerated. This would not be done without causing some harm. In other sectors, co-operation is, to say the truth, little developed and the situation of intra-subregional trade is little better than elsewhere (CEAO member States excluded). The West African Development Bank (BOAD) established under the initiative of UMOA mainly to serve CEAO together with the ECOWAS Fund, however, constitute, assets that could be used to speed up the integration process, if only certain obstacles are removed.

38. The special case of North Africa has already been described and cannot be evaluated since the institutional mechanisms for the promotion of economic co-operation within the Maghreb Union are only now being established. It can only be hoped that North Africa will learn from the experience of the rest of Africa in order to better organize its economic integration.

39. The main finding of the review of the achievements of the economic communities is that there is no process of subregional economic integration. Despite the existence of some of them for decades now, African subregional economic groupings have failed to make their impact felt. If they have made any impact, this one is rather negative: member States support financially organizations which do not make any significant contribution to efforts towards the improvement of the economic situation of the continent. This is evidenced by the following:

(a) A low percentage of intra-subregional trade: the average is below 5 per cent and tends to diminish. African trade remains predominantly oriented towards the North, perpetuating the dependence of the continent on exports;

(b) The absence of community enterprises. Whenever they, reluctantly, accepted to establish such enterprises, member States did not take appropriate measures for their smooth operations. The CIMAO experience or rather failure clearly illustrates this absence of determination as regards joint undertakings;

(c) The persistence of customs barriers between member States, in spite of intra-community trade liberalization schemes adopted by many economic groupings;

(d) The absence of genuine common external tariff. When such common external tariff exists by virtue of decisions of policy-making organs, the latter allow member States to apply "transitional" measures which, in some cases, have been in force for almost two decades;

(e) The lack of harmonization of sectoral policies in agriculture, industry, transport, energy, etc. Basic studies for the formulation of such policies do not exist. National selfishness prevails, especially as regards sharing of industrial investment. In the field of energy where the need for co-operation is obvious, some member States are reluctant to undertake the interconnection of their electric grids; even if networks are interconnected, this will entail no obligation for any country to sell electricity to the others. Concerning agriculture, scarce resources are wasted on national research programmes, while a subregional specialization could lead to concrete results in respect of production of selected seeds, improved animal species and vaccines; and

(f) The absence of monetary integration. No real progress has been made in this respect. Where monetary integration exists, decision-making prerogative is not in African hands.

40. In the absence of economic integration process in Africa, national economies performance is far from being optimal and is characterized by:

(a) A low productivity; and

(b) A non-competitive and overprotected production.

41. This results in the persistence of a deep structural economic crisis due to non-viable national economic structures because these national structures are disarticulated. A disarticulated economic structure is characterized by:

(a) Lack of linkage between agriculture and industry: no local production of cheap fertilizers, pesticides, agricultural equipment; and

(b) No local production of competitive basic industrial products: steel, chemical and petro-chemical products; therefore the modernization of key industrial sectors becomes very costly since it requires the importation of those basic industrial products.

42. A cohesive, integrated, viable and non-viable national productive structures can be characterized by the following features:

(a) An autonomous process of internal capital accumulation capable of ensuring the financing of key investment projects;

(b) A well-developed inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral linkages of the key national sectors;

(c) The adjustment between the production and consumption structure with a view to meeting the needs of the economy and the people;

(d) Expanded export sector made more competitive through a national or subregional industrial base and improved economic performance; and

(e) Economies which do not ensure enough production to guarantee the essential capital accumulation.

43. What are the main reasons for such a disappointing performance in respect of economic integration in Africa?

III. CAUSES OF THE INEXISTENT SUBREGIONAL ECONOMIC INTEGRATION PROCESS

44. First of all, the political will to take measures for implementing the basic instruments has never matched the hopes aroused by the enthusiasm of the early years of independence. Petty nationalism has often obstructed projects that would have played a decisive role in achieving the break-through in economic integration. It even seems that the implications of policy measures are not always clearly perceived and understood by the policy makers. And the prospect of losing customs revenue has almost invariably impeded the progress of all the organizations towards trade liberalization. There can be no economic integration with political and economic constraints at the national level: the EEC example illustrates it since each step towards harmonization is labouriously negotiated and always leads to compromises where each member country is more or less fairly compensated for its sacrifices. In the final analysis, constraints have, indeed, had a dynamic effect on national economies which are thus compelled to adapt themselves to the new situation.

45. Furthermore, and fundamentally so the approach pursued by most institutions does not seem to be adapted to the African situation. Trade liberalization seemed to have been preferred by advocates of economic integration in Africa as a means to attain this objective. But then, the EEC model cannot be applied to Africa. This is because when the EEC was set up, European countries had attained a very high production level and there even existed unused capacities which required only to be harnessed to meet the needs of a wider market. Furthermore, a dense network of good quality transport facilitated the movement of goods. Under such conditions, the removal of obstacles to trade had its full meaning. This was not the case in Africa where production units as a consequence of the market fragmentation exportable surpluses. In addition, those units were indirectly enjoying tariff and non-tariff protection. What was more the incomprehensive and poor quality of the transport infrastructure hampers the movement of goods to marketing areas. Finally, the external trade of African countries is oriented towards foreign markets outside the continent and offers few prospects for trade among neighbouring countries because manufactures are often similar: the idea of token specialization angered many countries. There is no denying the fact that trade has a role to play in making available products to where demand exists. But, if supply i.e. production and infrastructure for the transportation of goods do not exist or not at the appropriate level, trade facilitation mechanisms will function in a vacuum as is presently the case. Furthermore, bargaining around trade liberalization schemes is a long-lasting issue because countries with little or no comparative advantages fear loss of revenue likely to occur as a consequence of the removal of trade barriers.

46. Moreover, the economic groupings set up were endowed with resources that fell far below what the mission entrusted to them required. Somehow this can be ascribed to the lack of political will, for the States did not want or were unable to give these groupings the financial autonomy which would have enabled them to initiate decisive integration activities. The EEC example attests to what an organization that has its own resources and does not depend on annual contributions from member States can do. African economic groupings cannot add a new dimension to their action without sufficient funds. The funds needed for the achievement of African economic integration goal will never be provided by foreign countries: the dominant economies will, understandably, try to perpetuate their domination. Economic integration efforts in Africa can only be supported by locally-generated resources.

47. There exist also institutional deficiencies which make it rather difficult for economic groupings to operate effectively. For example, the rule of consensus tends to hinder the adoption and further implementation of decisions absolutely required for setting the economic integration process in motion. In the same vein, the secretariats of many economic groupings are expressly or implicitly denied of powers which are essential for discharging efficiently their duties.

48. One more difficulty arises from the fact that most (if not all) of economic groupings have failed to involve socio-economic groups in the economic integration process. Chambers of commerce, private sector, trade unions, professionals, youth and women's associations etc. are not aware of the objectives of the economic groupings and do not know what is expected from them in this respect. In order to play their role for the benefit of the economic integration, they must be fully involved in the formulation and subsequent implementation of policies and strategies, so that the expectations would not exceed their capacity; economic integration should not be dealt with solely by government officials.

49. Therefore, if genuine economic integration is to be pursued, the approach followed to date should be changed. Not only does the strategy require rethinking, but also the mechanisms need to be reviewed.

IV. PROPOSALS FOR STRENGTHENING OF CO-OPERATION AND INTEGRATION IN PRIORITY SECTORS AT SUBREGIONAL LEVEL

50. If regional economic integration was to be the basic element of a long-term development strategy, the priority sectors of this strategy ought to be spelt out and mutually developed by: (a) integrating production structures starting with production of intermediate and capital goods to be used as inputs in the subregional food security programmes and in the agricultural sector, and strengthening the multisectoral structure of the African economy: (b) integrating the physical infrastructure (transport and communications, energy links) and institutional infrastructure; and (c) integrating the African markets.

51. Promotion of regional integration, by creating the requisite infrastructure and production, will require the involvement of the private sector. This, obviously, does not minimize the role of the public sector in the provision of infrastructure, research and development including extension services, or of appropriate supportive institutions which are crucial for long-term achievements. The State's

role in providing and guaranteeing sustainable multinational infrastructure development is even more crucial. To this end, ECA prepared multisectoral projects to assist African economic groupings in strengthening economic integration.

52. ECA was convinced that economic integration should be defined as a process of co-ordinating and harmonizing sectoral activities at the subregional level and of promoting subregional intersectoral and intra-sectoral linkages through multisectoral planning to create more coherence between various sectoral programmes.

53. It is for these reasons that multisectoral programme formulation for economic integration was centred on three main objectives whose achievement requires an inter-disciplinary approach: (a) creation of a subregional cohesive area; (b) development of a subregional productive structure; and (c) finally, market integration. The creation of a cohesive subregional area requires the development of an integrated transport network in the subregion and the production, transportation and distribution of cheap energy. The attainment of this objective requires a multidisciplinary strategy in the fields of transport, telecommunications and energy. For example, food self-sufficiency requires an increase in industrial inputs, energy inputs and a co-ordinated transport system. By interlocking these three objectives through the multidisciplinary approach, economic communities will be able to avoid misallocation of resources.

V. ECONOMIC INTEGRATION IN AFRICA'S PRIORITY SECTORS

54. Sectoral development strategies are pursued in the framework of the global economic integration strategy and not in isolation. They are carried out in pursuit of the key development objective of self-sufficiency in food production, a dynamic concept which calls for the parallel development of all the priority sectors, viz:

(a) The building-up of a strong industrial base at the subregional level to ensure the efficient production of cheap industrial inputs;

(b) The development of cheap energy to support this industrial development;

(c) The development of an efficient transport system at the national and subregional levels; and

(d) The development of intra-community trade, which would help achieve the above objectives.

A. Food security and the agricultural sector

55. Progress in food security and agriculture have been recognized by African IGOs as vital for stimulating even more rapid progress in other sectors of the economy at the national and subregional levels. If in the long-term, African countries have the most rapid growth in agricultural output and incomes, they should expect to experience a most rapid decline in the relative overall importance of agriculture in the economy. On the contrary, those African countries experiencing the lowest longer-

term agricultural growth and greatest economic difficulties in recent years typically experienced an increase in the agricultural share of their GDP.

56. Action to correct the deteriorating situation in the African region was carried out during Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery, 1986-1990 and this led many African economic communities to adopt programmes of action for the short- and long-term development of agriculture and natural resources. For example, in the West African subregion, the short-term programme gave priority to projects involving the participation of rural communities and contributed to a rapid increase in agricultural production in the areas of water resources control, animal health, fish resources, soil conservation and agricultural research. ECA formulated action projects at the subregional levels, in the following areas:

(a) Control and rational exploitation of water resources;

(b) Drought and desertification control;

(c) Control of animal and plant diseases;

(d) Agricultural research;

(e) Establishment of subregional seed production and animal breeding centres;

(f) Fertilizer and pesticide production;

(g) Financial resource mobilization for large projects with subregional dimensions;

(h) Creation of subregional food security stocks; and

(i) Subregional programme for the production and marketing of agricultural equipment and implements.

B. Transport and communications sector

57. The evaluation of the first United Nations Transport and Communications Decade for Africa, 1978-1988 (UNTACDA) concluded that the objectives of the first decade were, by and large, still valid and should form the basis of the second transport decade. The aims of the first transport decade were: (a) establishing an integrated transport and communications systems in Africa as a basis for the physical integration of the continent; (b) improving the efficiency of national and international traffic; (c) fostering co-operation among African countries in order to achieve self-sustained economic development in accordance with the LPA, and the African programmes for economic restructuring and development.

58. As the lead agency, ECA co-ordinated the programme's implementation at the subregional and regional levels with the co-operation of member States, IGOs, African regional and subregional financial institutions, organizations of the United Nations system and the donor community. However, in the evaluation of UNTACDA's report, it was specifically pointed out that the

subregional economic organizations as well as specialized African IGOs did not participate adequately in the conceptualization, planning or execution of the first decade programme. In view of this and of the importance of IGOs, it is expected that during the second decade they will become a major source of projects and major partners in the development of this sector. Specifically, they are expected to prepare action-oriented projects within the subregions to meet the objectives of the second decade at the national level.

59. On-going ECA programme involve inter alia strengthening of African economic communities in the designing of rational policies and the implementation of development programmes, in the transport and communications sector, that are consistent with the basic orientation and thrust of the integration process. Planned relevant activities in the IGOs multisectoral projects that are already in place include the following:

(a) The rationalization of air transport routing systems;

(b) The development of coastal shipping;

(c) The completion of inter-country road networks; and

(d) The upgrading and extension of rail transport systems.

C. Industry sector

60. As for the industrial sector, industry itself becomes the integrating factor. In the first place, the industrial sector must contribute to increase in agricultural productivity. Subregional programmes have identified a number of priority industries which could help develop fertilizers, pesticides and agricultural machinery. In the second place, the industrial sector must also contribute to the modernization of other priority economic sectors. This calls for the establishment of a solid industrial base by developing such key industries as iron and steel, aluminum, basic chemical and petro-chemical industries with the aim of providing intermediate inputs to the sectors and of strengthening the national industrial structures. This industrialization will aim, therefore, at supporting energy development (production of cables, manufacture of pylons and transformers), major infrastructural projects, construction of transport equipment and other capital goods of primary necessity. It will also allow for the development of a solid and competitive small-scale industry sector which will use local intermediate products and local entrepreneurship.

61. It must be pointed out here that the vicious circle in African industry seems to result from the physical capacity installed outpacing the breadth and depth of capabilities needed to run it efficiently. The framework for a sound management of industrialization, at the national and subregional level will have to take on board the economic agents of the subregions.

62. Planned activities in the IGOs multisectoral projects lay emphasis first on the survey of key industrial enterprises in each subregion that will inter alia look into production costs, capacity utilization, installed capacity, physical conditions of production facilities and financial structures.

63. Secondly, the emphasis was put on the preparation of industrial sectoral plans for key industrial sub-sectors based on demand and supply as well as on existing plant capacity.

64. Thirdly, on the market and prefeasibility studies for key industrial projects identified to determine their viability and to find out the comparative advantage enjoyed by each member State in the subregion.

65. Finally, on activities to promote indigenous industries and African multinational joint ventures.

D. Energy sector

66. In most of the subregions, especially in the West African subregion, the shortage of energy sources and the high cost of imported petroleum have aggravated the economic situation. There is a surplus of hydro-electricity production in some areas, not properly harnessed due to lack of electricity grids to serve the deficit areas. Many power plants in the subregions are not developed, because all the subregional energy needs are not taken into account by market studies.

67. The work done to date in each subregion has not included any comprehensive study on the possibility of jointly developing the hydro-electric power potential of each subregion and its effective mobilization through a network of grids and interconnections, to serve the needs of the subregions.

68. An adequate supply of energy is a basic condition for sound and sustainable development, especially for sound industrial development. The project proposed in this sector will include, first, the study of interconnections between the existing power plants to serve the consumer centres in the subregions; second, the study of the possibility of jointly developing the hydro-electric potential of the subregions. It will examine how existing projects and those underway can be more effectively exploited on priority basis in a subregion. Also, new possibilities for hydro-electric power will be identified and prefeasibility study for their development prepared to meet the future needs of the subregions.

E. Trade and finance sectors

69. An analysis of the trade structures of individual African countries reveals the existence of a wide range of products, exported from Africa to overseas, that can be significantly traded within Africa; for example agricultural products, livestock and industrial goods; still, substantial intra-subregional trade opportunities are being neglected. A number of formidable problems explain the situation. Prominent among them are the deeply-entrenched traditional trade channels and strong financial connections between individual African countries and overseas ex-metropolitan countries.

70. Other constraints on intra-subregional trade include language and historical barriers, customs regulations and procedures, inefficient transport and communication infrastructures, lack of locally-manufactured competitive products, lack of easy intra-regional currency convertibility, lack of market knowledge and a poor network of trade contacts.

71. The objective of the project, in the trade and finance sectors, is the establishment of a single community market by abolishing customs barriers, introducing a common tariff for foreign goods and

having subregional co-operation in terms of currency and finance, in order to boost intra-community trade.

72. However, the project documents in this area, in each subregion, have taken into account the following considerations: in seeking to create a favourable framework for promoting intra-community trade in goods manufactured by member States, careful thought should be given to the modalities for implementing this objective. Every effort should be made to avoid unequal trading, which could result from the States which have more developed production systems taking advantage of the removal of customs duties to flood the less developed countries with their products.

73. Indeed, at the initial stage, the framework for community exchanges should be strengthened through the establishment of a clearing house and by finding ways of making currencies within the subregion convertible as a precondition for stimulating intra-community trade in general goods. However, trade liberalization among member States should be planned in a gradual manner. The hasty granting of preferential treatment to highly competitive consumer goods could block the process of industrialization in the less developed countries of the subregion and aggravate the phenomenon of unequal exchange in the subregional economic communities. Such a situation will not be in accordance with the raison d'être of the community.

74. On the contrary, it is necessary, at the beginning of any process of integration, to reduce drastically or even abolish altogether customs duties on certain priority products. These priority products, which could be either strategic raw materials or intermediate goods or even capital goods, are those that can speed up the process of subregional integration.

75. The logic of integration is that total liberalization of trade does not occur until the national economies which are part of the entity are effectively integrated at the community level. When this has occurred, the abolition of tariffs will stimulate efficiency in the economic apparatus of the community by eliminating unproductive units and correcting minor structural imbalances in the national economies. This will enable all the member States to become both buyers and sellers in the community.

VI. CONDITIONS FOR SETTING THE ECONOMIC INTEGRATION PROCESS IN MOTION

76. There exist basic requirements to be met prior to the launching of a genuine economic integration process.

A. Necessity of commitment: the true meaning of economic integration

77. The way African States have so far dealt with economic integration issues tends to indicate that there is no genuine political commitment on their part. Indeed, there cannot be any economic integration without minimum supranationality. This means that member States must have a clear perception of the aims to be achieved and means to be used to that effect. Therefore, in order to enable the economic integration process to be launched, competent bodies should be empowered to

take necessary steps towards the common objectives. And member States should translate into concrete actions, decisions taken by the community decision-making bodies.

78. Economic integration could not allow for national policies whose effects may oppose the attainment of subregional or regional objectives. If member States are really convinced of the gains to be derived from economic integration, the economic groupings will be enabled to propose and implement programmes and projects of relevance to common policies.

B. Lead role to be played by some countries in each subregion

79. If economic integration is to be set in motion, some countries have to show more dynamism than others in taking initiatives. Otherwise all countries will be waiting for the secretariats to make suggestions which may be opposed at a later stage. But if such suggestions emanate from a member State, they are likely to be more easily accepted by the others. The matter is not to make some countries feel more concerned than the others with the economic integration. But the European experience has shown that one or two countries can be the engine for economic integration, irrespective of their size. In the case of Africa, the determination of some countries should be based on concrete programmes to be implemented jointly by all concerned.

C. Proposals by informal groups of personalities for relaunching economic integration process in each subregion

80. We all know the influence on European unification of views disseminated by a few personalities profoundly dedicated to the idea of getting European countries closer to each other. Speaking in their own name and, in most of cases, in charge of no official duty, they could freely make bold proposals: they were not bound by any peculiar interest.

81. Africa needs to follow a similar approach with a view to spreading the very concept of economic integration and its potential gains. In order to be effective, this needs to be done at the subregional level: people are more familiar with the realities of smaller entities, and subregions are more homogeneous than the whole continent can be.

82. The groups of African personalities would meet with a view to making concrete proposals to be considered by economic groupings. The first step would, naturally, be a diagnosis of the status of economic integration in each subregion and identification of main hindrances to the economic integration.

83. Once those basic conditions are met, the economic integration process can be launched through the formulation and implementation in the medium-term of well-articulated multisectoral programme based on well-designed sequential actions inducing one another, namely:

(a) Rehabilitation of key community enterprises and liberalization of trade pertaining to their products within the community. For example, African countries continue to import from outside cement, fertilizers, iron and steel etc., while most of such products existing plants in Africa can supply

the market. The rehabilitation of African industrial plants requires their access to large markets. This would result in opening up new production lines and subsequent decrease in production costs due to economies of scale;

(b) Adoption and implementation of community food security plans. It was observed that in the same subregion one country can have food surplus, while others face deficit. Deficit countries would expect free-cost grain to be provided by the developed world, rather than buy crops from their neighbours. This clearly points to the need for a comprehensive food security programme at the subregional level, including storage and marketing policies. No collective food self-sufficiency could be, otherwise, achieved; and

(c) Reduction of customs duties levied on locally-produced key products traded among African countries, and protection of community economic activities by establishing common external tariff. The common external tariff must be a genuine one, in order to avoid trade diversion, to the detriment of some countries, due to significant differences in tariffs between countries.

84. Such measures should be complemented, in the long run, by common policies in selected areas, for example:

(a) Five-year community agricultural development programme;

(b) Community plan for the interconnection of electricity grids; and

(c) Realistic industrial development programme centred on basic industries, existing infrastructure, energy sources and subregional market.

VII. BUILDING UP ECONOMIC INTEGRATION FORCES WITHIN THE COMMUNITIES

A. Participation of all socio-economic groups in the economic integration process

85. Most (if not all) economic groupings in Africa have failed to involve socio-economic groups, while it is important to ensure that all groups of people who play a role in the socio-economic life of a subregion become actors of the economic integration process. If left out, they cannot orient their activities towards the achievement of the integration objective. They have to be involved at a very early stage, when programmes and projects are formulated, if not before. In this respect, one can but deplore that those groups who are supposed to be the primary beneficiaries of the economic integration have rarely a say in negotiations. It is, therefore, doubtful that they can feel concerned. But it is encouraging that their representatives more and more voice their quest for involvement. Such appeal can no longer be ignored and member States of economic groupings have to address it. In this respect, the economic groupings should seek the participation of federations of chambers of commerce, consulting firms, engineers' associations, industrialists' associations, large private investment companies etc.

B. Self-financing mechanism

86. The collection of assessed contributions mainly devoted to the operating expenses of the economic groupings is subject to increasing difficulties due to the financial crisis faced by many countries. But the activities of economic groupings should not confine to mere functioning whose cost is barely born by member States. Therefore economic integration process can be in motion only if operational programmes and projects are implemented. Unfortunately, very little amount of local resources is devoted to such activities, if any at all, in most cases operational activities are funded only by external sources.

87. In order to correct this situation, there is a need for autonomous resources to be made available directly to the economic groupings. There is a wide range of possibilities as far as the origin of such resources is concerned. It may be a given percentage of duties levied on goods traded within the subregion, a specific tax for economic integration purposes, a portion of duties levied on goods originating from outside the subregion etc. The important thing is that such resources should be identified as those of the economic groupings concerned; member States should have no bearing on them. The European experience shows how important a self-financing mechanism is and no significant progress towards economic integration can be achieved so long as economic groupings will not have at their disposal a regular and sufficient flow of resources.

VIII. MOVING TOWARDS SUPRANATIONALITY AT SUBREGIONAL LEVEL

88. No economic integration can be achieved without concessions from member States as regards part of their sovereignty. Such concessions are solely meant for the effectiveness of community bodies which would entail, inter alia, the following:

(a) Community decisions immediately enforceable in some critical areas. The rule of consensus tends to hinder the adoption and implementation of protocols and other decisions required for setting the economic integration process in motion. This needs to be corrected;

(b) Creation of a community executive body with extensive powers. The secretariats of many economic groupings are expressly or implicitly denied powers which are essential for discharging their duties efficiently;

(c) Creation of a community parliament. This would enable the public opinion and its representatives to monitor the economic integration process and, if need be, to orient the related action of governments towards the right direction;

(d) Building up of community institutions - economic groupings need to develop their activities through operational arms located outside their secretariats. This may concern higher learning institutions, technological research institutions etc.; and

(e) Adoption of a federal structure at the community level. This would be, at the ultimate stage, the type of relationship between member States required for efficient functioning of economic groupings.

IX. SETTING THE AFRICAN ECONOMIC COMMUNITY IN MOTION

89. The signing of the Treaty for the establishment of the African Economic Community would only mean that an important step towards the economic unification of the continent has been made. The more important task of launching the activities of the Community would then remain to be carried out. This could be centred on key elements to be promoted along the lines formulated in the draft treaty:

(a) Abolition of customs duties between the subregional economic groupings. This will gradually lead to the establishment of a continental free-trade area;

(b) Establishment of the African Economic Community common external tariff. This will be the sign that the African customs union is completed;

(c) Harmonization of sectoral policies and programmes at continental level:

(i) By developing subregional comparative advantages, which could lead to specialization at the continental level; and

(ii) Through continental projects in strategic areas (land transport equipment, telecommunications, computer science, etc.);

(d) Creation of a confederation of African economic communities.

90. Although the African Economic Community would have the essential power for accelerating the process of continental integration, the specificity of each subregion would continue to be recognized. The subregional economic communities would be transformed into subregional development organs. Another scenario to be also envisaged is the transformation of subregional economic communities into political federations. In this event, the African Economic Community would become at the final stage a confederation of African subregional federations.

X. CONCLUSION

91. African countries have taken steps during the last few years towards the implementation of the FAL. But at the same time the subregional economic groupings, which are supposed to be the pillars for the establishment of the African Economic Community, remain weak owing to institutional deficiencies and financial constraints. The activities of the African Economic Community cannot be successfully launched if the existing deficiencies of subregional economic groupings are not corrected. In this respect, African countries must renew their commitment by showing more political will than is the case at present.

92. Furthermore, the creation of the African Economic Community is intended to speed up the process of subregional economic integration. Indeed, during the first 25 years of its existence the African Economic Community will devote most of its activities to strengthening and harmonizing the operations of subregional economic groupings. The vitality and strength of the African Economic Community will, therefore, greatly depend on subregional economic groupings.

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Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
9 to 13 May 1991

PROGRESS REPORT ON THE PREPARATION OF THE PROGRAMME FOR THE UNITED NATIONS SECOND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT DECADE FOR AFRICA

(December 1989 - December 1990)

I. BACKGROUND

1. The bureau of the ninth meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Industry (CAMI) was entrusted with the responsibility of reviewing the follow-up actions to the resolutions adopted in Harare, in particular resolution 2 (IX) and decision 3 (IX) requesting the proclamation of the second Industrial Develop- ment Decade for Africa (IDDA-2), and the Africa Industrialization Day (AID) res- pectively. Specifically, in resolution 2 (IX), the Conference entrusted the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), the Economic Commis- sion for Africa (ECA) and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) with the pre- paration, in consultation of a Working Group of 15 governmental experts, of a zero draft of the programme for the second IDDA and present joint reports to the Conference of African Ministers of Industry and their respective legislative bodies. In decision 3 (IX), the Conference also called upon the above three organizations to monitor actions taken at the national, subregional and interna- tional levels towards the commemoration of the AID on 20 November.

2. During the first meeting of the bureau of the ninth meeting of the Con- ference held in Vienna on 19 November 1989, the three secretariats of ECA, OAU and UNIDO provided briefings on the following developments that have taken place since the ninth meeting of the Conference: (a) Industrial Development Board decision IDB.5/Dec.7 of 7 July 1989 on the second IDDA; (b) resolution AHG/Res.180 (XXV) of the twenty-fifth session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the OAU of July 1989 on the proclamation of a second IDDA and on an Africa Industrialization Day; and (c) Economic and Social Council resolu- tion 1989/115 of 28 July 1989 on the proclamation of a second IDDA. While all three resolutions requested the General Assembly to proclaim the period 1991-2000 as the second Industrial Development Decade for Africa, ECOSOC resolution 1989/115 also requested the Secretary-General of the United Nations in consulta- tion with the Director-General of UNIDO, to submit to the forty-fourth session of the General Assembly proposals with cost estimates in the preparation of the programme for IDDA-2.

3. The present report is intended to provide detailed information on acti- vities undertaken and progress made in the preparation of the programme for the second IDDA and problems encountered, and to make recommendations for follow-up actions. The report covers the period December 1989 - December 1990.

4. As indicated above, ECA in consultation with UNIDO, has prepared and sub- mitted to the forty-fourth session of the General Assembly the Report of the Secretar-General (A/44/812) providing proposals for the preparation of the programme of IDDA-2. These proposals were based on resolution 2 (IX) of the ninth meeting of Conference of African Ministers of Industry and also contained cost estimates. In addition, ECA and UNIDO were entrusted with the respon- sibility of providing a local and an international expert, respectively, to assist in the preparation of national programmes. ECA was also requested to assist in the preparation of subregional programmes and to organize the two meetings of the Working Group of governmental experts set up by the Conference. To that end, the two secretariats were provided with the necessary resources ($US 461,900 and $US 883,200 respectively). It should be recalled that the General Assembly adopted resolution 44/237 of 22 December 1989 proclaiming the period 1991-2000 as the second IDDA and 20 November as Africa Industrialization Day. The resolution also endorsed the proposals contained in the Secretary-General's report.

II. ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN AND PROGRESS MADE IN THE PREPARATION OF THE PROGRAMME FOR THE SECOND IDDA

A. Preparation of the framework and guidelines for action at the national and subregional levels

5. In resolution 2 (IX) of the ninth meeting of the Conference referred to earlier, as well as UNIDO General Conference resolution GC.3/10 of 23 November 1989 and General Assembly resolution 44/237,

the secretariats of OAU, ECA and UNIDO were requested to prepare, in consultation with the Working Group of governmental experts, a framework to assist member States in the elaboration of their national and subregional programmes for the second IDDA. Accordingly, two draft framework papers were prepared by UNIDO and ECA respectively, after the consultative meeting of the three secretariats held at ECA from 7 to 10 March 1990. The drafts were combined into a final draft during the tenth meeting of the Joint Committee of the OAU, ECA and UNIDO secretariats on IDDA, which was held in Addis Ababa from 22 to 27 March 1990. As the framework had to be elaborated in consultation with the Working Group of governmental experts, it was sent by UNIDO to the 15 members of the Working Group in April 1990 with a view to providing their inputs. To date, only two countries, namely Ethiopia and the Gambia, have sent their comments. Meanwhile the draft framework was forwarded to all African Ministers of Industry, subregional organizations, and local experts, through UNDP offices so that they could start the preparation process of the national and subregional programmes.

B. Working Group of governmental experts

6. In a letter and a reminder sent out in January and February 1990 respec- tively, UNIDO invited three nominations from countries in the five subregions (Central, East, North, Southern and West Africa) including the members of the bureau of the ninth meeting of the Conference, to constitute the Working Group, as decided in resolution 2 (IX). The main responsibility of the Working Group is to review and finalize both the framework for the preparation of national and subregional programmes, and the draft programme of the second IDDA. The constitution of the Working Group was completed in October 1990 and is as follows:

West Africa:	The Gambia, Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal
Central Africa:	Central African Republic, Cameroon and Zaire
North Africa:	Algeria, Tunisia and Egypt
Eastern Africa:	Kenya, Uganda and Ethiopia
Southern Africa:	Zimbabwe, Malawi and Mozambique

C. Preparation by African countries of their national programmes

7. As indicated earlier, in resolutions 2 (IX) of the ninth meeting of the Conference and 44/237 of the United Nations General Assembly, the secretariats of ECA and UNIDO were entrusted with the responsibility of providing, upon request, African countries and intergovernmental organizations with interna- tionally and locally recruited experts to assist them in the preparation of their national programmes. In February 1990, the UNIDO secretariat informed all individual countries and intergovernmental organizations of the possibility for having such assistance.

8. With respect to local experts, ECA has communicated to all African coun- tries, in March 1990, the possibility to be provided with local experts to assist in the preparation of their national programmes and invited them to make pro- posals accordingly. In addition, the terms of reference for local and interna- tional experts for the intergovernmental organizations were prepared by ECA and reviewed by the tenth meeting of the Joint Committee held in Addis Ababa from 22 to 27 March 1990. The terms of reference for local experts together with the draft framework were forwarded to member countries through UNDP offices on 26 April 1990. Subsequently reminders were sent in May, June, July and August 1990.

9. In order to assist member states in accelerating the preparation of their national programmes and due to lack of feedback from many countries, ECA recruited two senior consultants (for English- and

French-speaking countries respectively) to undertake sensitizing missions to about 30 selected countries with a view to providing local authorities with detailed information on the second IDDA, and holding discussions on their respective industrial policies and strategies. The senior consultants were also requested to hold working sessions with local experts on their terms of reference, and the framework in order to ensure consistency among various country programmes and agree on a broad outline of individual national programmes. Where no local expert had not yet been appointed, the two consultants were to contact relevant authorities with a view to accelerating the process. They were also to ensure that a national IDDA working group is established and that a government official is designated as co-ordinator.

10. The situation as of 31 December 1990 was as follows, in the 51 ECA member States:

(a) Recruitment of local experts

(i) 59 local experts from 42 member countries were recruited;

(ii) One country (Morocco) has indicated that no local expert was required although the national programme will be prepared and forwarded to ECA;

(iii) Nomination was expected from one country which indicated that a working group has already started the work (Namibia);

(iv) One country had just nominated its local experts (Côte d'Ivoire);

(v) One country has requested a joint ECA/UNIDO mission in January 1991;

(vi) Five countries (Madagascar, Liberia, Seychelles, Sao Tome and Principe, Mauritius) had not responded despite several reminders.

(b) Status of the preparation of the national programmes

(i) 14 countries had submitted their national programmes which have been compiled to be included in a consolidated regional programme for the second IDDA;

(ii) Several countries have however informed ECA that the reports prepared by local experts have been sent;

(iii) Also, programmes of some countries have been sent directly to UNIDO and will be forwarded to ECA;

(iv) It is, therefore, expected that most of the national programmes would have been received by end of January 1991.

11. With respect to international experts to be provided by UNIDO, the situa- tion as of November 1990 was as follows:

(a) Missions were fielded to 32 countries, to assist local experts and the government in the preparation and finalization of the national programmes;

(b) Three countries are being assisted through UNIDO ongoing projects related to strategic management of industrial development;

(c) One country has indicated that no international expert was required, and its national programme was completed and forwarded to UNIDO;

(d) In two countries, the prevailing situation did not make it possible to field missions;

(e) 13 countries had not yet responded.

D. Preparation of subregional programmes

12. The main responsibility for providing technical assistance, upon request, to subregional organizations in the preparation of their subregional programmes is entrusted to ECA. To this end, ECA has sent a letter in April 1990 to all subregional organizations forwarding the terms of reference for international experts together with the framework and guidelines for action at national and subregional levels.

13. Subsequently, major international organizations were informed that, even if they do not require external expertise to prepare their IDDA projects, they could provide ECA with existing subregional programmes to be updated at a later stage when national programmes would have been received. Since no feedback has been received, and that subregional programmes should take into consideration, to a large extent, the national programmes, ECA intends to field missions by the two senior consultants to the subregions in order to update existing subregional industrial programmes as subregional programmes for the second IDDA.

14. Such an approach is consistent with the decision taken at the second meet- ing of the PTA Ministers of industry to establish a sub-committee composed of the PTA secretariat, four member countries, UNIDO, UNDP, the Commonwealth Secre- tariat and ECA to finalize a document entitled "Integrated industrial development programme for the PTA subregion" taking into account the national programmes.

E Other activities of the secretariats related to the preparations for the second IDDA

1. OAU resolution CM/RES.1283(L II) on industrial development

15. In view of the fundamental role of industrialization in promoting African economic integration and development and in order to focus the attention of all member States and African organizations in the preparation of the programme for the second IDDA, the OAU Council of Ministers adopted, at its fifty-second ordinary session, resolution CM/Res.1283(L II) of 8 July 1990 on industrial development. The resolution "urged all African countries and intergovernmental organizations to formulate their programmes for the second IDDA in accordance with the timetable established for that purpose and requested the Secretary-General, in co-operation with the Executive Secretary of ECA and the Director General of UNIDO, to assist African countries and organizations in the prepara- tion of programmes and activities of the second IDDA".

2. Report to the forty-fifth session of the United Nations General Assembly on the preparations for the second IDDA

16. In accordance with paragraph 4 of resolution 44/237, the secretariats of the OAU, ECA and UNIDO prepared, in April 1990, a report of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, on preparations for the second Industrial Development Decade for Africa. The report has been submitted to the Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) at its 1990 second regular session for transmission to the General Assembly for consideration at its forty-fifth session.

3. Ad hoc meeting of the three secretariats of the OAU, ECA and UNIDO

17. Along with the twenty-sixth session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the OAU from 9 to 11 July 1990 in Addis Ababa, the three secre- tariats of the OAU, ECA and UNIDO met on 12 and 13 July 1990 with a view to co-ordinating their activities and follow-up actions required in the preparatory process of the programme of the second IDDA. The meeting also agreed on the draft agenda as well as draft outlines of the documents to be considered by the second meeting of the bureau of the Conference of African Ministers of Industry and suggested a revised timetable for activities to be undertaken before the tenth meeting of Conference which could be held in June 1991, in Dakar, Senegal.

III. PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED IN THE PREPARATION OF THE PROGRAMME FOR THE SECOND IDDA

18. The preparation of the programme for the second IDDA experienced some dif- ficulties. The major problems encountered in the process were the following:

A. Delay in the preparation of the framework

19. The framework ought to have been ready during the second half of 1989 fol- lowing the ninth meeting of the Conference. However, activities for the pre- paration, in September 1989, of the report of the Secretary-General to the forty-fourth session of the General Assembly on proposals for the preparation of the IDDA-2 programme, as well as for the third session of the General Conference of UNIDO in November 1989 made it difficult for the three secretariats to meet in late 1989, as had been planned. This meeting was only possible in March 1990.

B. Lack of adequate feedback from governments

20. In spite of repeated reminders, governments have not submitted, on time, their requests for assistance, in terms of local experts and international con- sultants to be financed by ECA and UNIDO respectively. Indeed, many of them have reacted only in the last quarter of 1990. As indicated earlier, this has led the ECA secretariat to concentrate on the countries that needed more assistance, including the recruitment, on request, of more than one local expert in some LDCs and some other countries with relatively complex industrial structures.

C. Delay in constituting the Working Group of governmental experts

21. Similarly, in spite of repeated reminders, late reactions from governments have delayed the constitution of the Working Group. This has adversely affected the finalization of the framework which, as indicated earlier, was sent directly to individual countries without the clearance of the Working Group.

D. Lack of feedback from subregional organizations

22. The lack of feedback from subregional organizations, in addition to the delay in the preparation of national programmes has resulted in little progress with respect to subregional programmes for the IDDA. However, as indicated earlier, the process could be speeded up by updating existing programmes of intergovernmental organizations using information derived from national programmes.

E. Financial constraints

23. The preparation of the programme for the second IDDA has come across some limitations due to financial constraints. As indicated earlier, all countries that have requested assistance have been

provided with local and international experts by ECA and UNIDO respectively. However, no further assistance by ECA is possible given the limitation of available resources. Also, there is no provision for funding the meetings of the bureau of the Conference. The resources made available to ECA by the General Assembly relate only to the organization of two meetings of the Working Group of governmental experts in 1991. Furthermore, no specific resources were earmarked for the translation of the consolidated programme.

IV. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION

24. In spite of the difficulties outlined above, the process of the preparation of the programme for the second IDDA is well under way especially its component on country programmes. A review is to be made by the second meeting of the bureau of the ninth meeting of the Conference, which will agree on the date and venue of the first meeting of the Working Group. Both meetings are scheduled in the first quarter of 1991. Thus a number of issues still need to be addressed in connection with the finalization, adoption and implementation of the programme for the second IDDA as outlined below:

A. Finalization and adoption of the programme for the second IDDA

25. As provided for in both resolutions 2 (IX) of the ninth meeting of the Con- ference and 44/237 of the General Assembly, the draft programme for the second IDDA, prepared by the three secretariats on the basis of country and subregional reports, should be reviewed and finalized by the Working Group before its sub- mission to the Conference of African Ministers of Industry at its tenth meeting. As a subsidiary organ of the Commission, the Conference may be requested in the light of the meetings of its bureau and the first and second meetings of the Working Group to review the implementation of the timetable contained in resolu- tions 2 (IX) and 44/237.

26. Depending on the progress made, the Conference would, at its tenth meeting on 10 and 11 June 1991 in Dakar, Senegal, adopt the programme for the second IDDA, on behalf of the ECA Conference of Ministers, for transmission to the 1991 second regular session of the Economic and Social Council and subsequently to the forty-sixth session of the United Nations General Assembly. The Conference of African Ministers of Industry may also consider revising the timetable to take into account the delays that have occurred in the course of the preparation of the programme for the second IDDA.

B. Implementation of the programme for the second IDDA

27. Once the programme for the second IDDA is adopted by the United Nations General Assembly, its implementation will depend, first and foremost, on African countries themselves and African intergovernmental organizations. However, the support of the international community, particularly bilateral donors and multi- lateral financial institutions as well as private investors is of crucial importance. To mobilize such support, it is essential for the Economic Commission for Africa, in co-operation with the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and the Organization of African Unity to assist the African Governments and intergovernmental organizations in the promotion of their respective programmes for the second IDDA. To that end, the ECA secretariat should be provided with adequate regular budget resources as from the biennium 1992-1993.

INTRODUCTION

1. At their seventh meeting held in Tangier, Morocco, in November 1989, the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning approved the objectives, strategies and guidelines for the preparation of the second United Nations Transport and Communications Decade in Africa Programme.

2. The Conference fully recognized that the global objectives of the first Decade, that is, establishment of integrated transport and communications systems in Africa as a basis for the physical integration of the continent, improving the efficiency of the systems, facilitating national and international traffic and fostering co-operation among African countries, were still valid for the second Decade. While the development objective was unchanged, the Conference decided to adopt a new strategy on the basis of the experience gained from the first Decade and in order to avoid the short-comings revealed by the programme evaluation which was conducted at the end of 1987.

3. The new strategy focuses on the "bottom-up approach" which enables effective participation by all parties involved in the preparation of the second Decade programme, i.e., users and policy-makers at national, subregional, regional, subsectoral, institutional and agency levels. More specifically, the strategy required:

(a) The creation in every African country of a national co-ordinating committee (NCC), composed of senior government officials and representatives of the private sector, to assist the government in the articulation and definition of country sectoral strategies and objectives;

(b) The establishment of subsectoral and subregional working groups to prepare subsectoral and subregional strategies and programmes. These groups were to include intergovernmental organizations, United Nations specialized agencies as well as international institutions and organizations;

(c) The establishment of a Resource Mobilization Committee (RMC), composed of the following international financing institutions and leading institutions: the African Development Bank (ADB), Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA), European Economic Community (EEC), African, Carribean and Pacific Group (ACP), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Organization of African Unity (OAU), the World Bank and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to provide technical, methodological and financial guidance in the preparation and implementation of the programme.

4. It should be pointed out that the above new strategy was designed to strengthen and support the work of the Decade organs which were established during the first Decade and have been retained for UNTACDA II: the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning, the Inter-Agency Co-ordinating Committee, the Intergovernmental Experts on Transport and Communications, and ECA as lead agency.

5. Below is a brief summary of the activities which have been carried out at the various levels in the preparation of the UNTACDA II since the Tangier meeting.

I. ORIENTATION WORKSHOPS

6. Following the approval by the Conference of the objectives, strategies and guidelines for the preparation of the UNTACDA II programme, ECA initiated a series of orientation workshops: the

first in February 1990 for leaders of the national co-ordinating committees (NCCs), the second in March 1990 for African intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) which formed the subregional working groups, and the last in April 1990 for United Nations agencies and sectoral African IGOs which formed the sectoral working groups. The main purpose of these orientation workshops was to enable the setting of more specific guidelines and allocation of tasks among members of each working group for the preparation of the programme at the various levels and subsectors.

II. ACTIVITIES AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL

7. The critical role to be played by the NCCs based on the bottom-up approach is the preparation of UNTACDA II programme has been well articulated and defined and their terms of reference and composition were clearly established and approved by the Conference of Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning in Tangier is DEC/TRANSCOM/67/Rev.4.

8. With specific regard to their establishment and activities, as of December 1990, only 32 countries had reported to have established their NCCs: Algeria, Burundi, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Equatorial Guinea, Kenya, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Malawi, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, the Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, the Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

9. As a direct result of missions carried out by ECA and some subregional organizations, Djibouti, Lesotho, Somalia, Swaziland and Tunisia were reported to be in the process of establishing their NCCs.

10. In summary, out of 51 member States, ECA has not received information on the status or otherwise of NCCs in 14 member States.

11. Of the 32 member States that have established NCCs, only 26 of them have submitted their countries' inputs of the strategy and programme, viz: Algeria, Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, the Congo, Ethiopia, Egypt, Ghana, Guinea, Equatorial Guinea, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritania, Morocco, the Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, the Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

12. Several NCCs did request technical assistance from ECA in the preparation of their national programmes and, based on the established principle, these requests were forwarded to the Chairman of the Resource Mobilization Committee for action. From the pattern of requests, it is evident that some NCCs lacked adequate resources to effectively carry out the national components of their UNTACDA II programme preparation. However, ECA continued to urge them to continue the preparations with those resources normally available for their regular activities.

III. SUBREGIONAL ACTIVITIES

13. Subregional working groups were set up during the March 1990 meeting of the African intergovernmental organizations for economic co-operation. Each of the four African subregions (i.e., North, West, Central and Eastern and Southern) elected a leader to co-ordinate their activities, which among other things included assisting their member States in the preparation of national programmes. Below is a summary of their activities.

14. The fifth meeting of RMC fixed the IACC meeting to be held from 17 to 20 December 1990 in order to meet the deadline already set for the meeting of experts in the first week of February 1991. All the other meetings were concluded in advance of the above dates. The meetings for the subregions were held in October to December as follows:

North Africa: 8-12 October 1990, Addis Ababa
Central Africa 22-26 October 1990, Libreville
West Africa 29 October-2 November 1990, Ouagadougou
Eastern and Southern Africa 4-7 December 1990, Lusaka

A. Eastern and Southern Africa

15. This subregional working group is co-ordinated by the secretariat of the Preferential Trade Area for Eastern and Southern African States (PTA). The assistance to member States was divided up among the respective smaller subregional organizations, namely SATCC, CEPGL, IGADD, (NTTC) and KBO, while the PTA secretariat itself covered those countries which do not belong to these organizations in addition to its role of co-ordinating the activities of all the above, so as to produce a consolidated subregional programme.

16. The convergence meeting of the Eastern and Southern Africa Subregional Working Group was held in Lusaka, Zambia, from 4 to 7 December 1990 under the chairmanship of the PTA. It was attended by NCC representatives from Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The following IGOs of the subregion took part in the meeting: PTA, CEPGL, KBO and (TTCA). In addition, ITU, UNCTAD, UAR and ECA also participated as well as representatives of the various sectoral working groups.

17. Each NCC representative presented reports on their national strategy and programmes for the Decade. The representative of PTA, as co-ordinator of the Subregional Working Group then presented the subregional view. The sector representatives then presented their sectoral reports. All these various reports were analyzed together, the problem areas were identified and the strategy and draft programme for the subregion were drawn.

B. West Africa

18. The West African subregional working group is co-ordinated by the secretariat of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), assisted by the secretariat of the Economic Community of West Africa (CEAO), as well as ECA. Other members of the group are ECA, OAU, Mano River Union (MRU), Organization for Development of the Senegal River (OMVS), Organization for the Development of the Gambia River (OMVG), CILSS, MINCONMAR, Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC) and the Liptako-Gourma Authority.

19. The West African subregional meeting was held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso from 29 October to 2 November 1990 and was chaired by ECOWAS.

20. The meeting was attended by only four member countries out of the total sixteen ECOWAS member States. These were Burkina Faso, Mali, the Niger and Sierra Leone. The following subregional intergovernmental organizations took part in the meeting: ECOWAS, CEAO, Lake Chad Basin Commission (CBLT), the Mano River Union (MRU) , the Liptako-Gourma Authority

and the Organization for the Development of the Senegal River (OMVS). International and regional agencies which participated in the meeting were ITU, PAPU, UAR, the World Bank and ECA.

21. The national co-ordinating committee members as well as the subregional organizations and representatives of sectoral working groups elaborated their respective strategies and priority programmes for the second Decade. However, in view of the low participation of member States, the meeting called upon ECOWAS to organize another meeting to review all the inputs so far received as well as those to be expected from the rest of the national co-ordinating committees and prepare the strategy and programme for West Africa.

22. The follow-up meeting was subsequently held at ECOWAS headquarters in Lagos, Nigeria on 29 and 30 November 1990. Again, only three NCCs took part in the meeting, namely Nigeria, Ghana and the Niger; thus, in total only six out of the sixteen member States of the subregion participated in the strategy meetings.

23. However, part of the subregion consisting of the seven CEAO countries (Burkina Faso, Benin, Mali, the Niger, Senegal, Côte d'Ivoire and Mauritania) plus Togo were sufficiently covered in the CEAO project which was funded by the World Bank. That project carried out the base-line assessment and developed the general strategy for the development of the transport and communications sectors during the Decade. Some action programmes to be carried out at the subregional level have been identified.

24. ECA had, in the meantime, prepared a draft strategy and programme document for the subregion based on the submissions of CEAO, OMVS, CBLT, the Liptako Gourma Authority and the ongoing programmes of ECOWAS and MRU.

C. Central Africa

25. In the Central African subregion, the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) is the co-ordinating International Government Organizations (IGOs) and other members of the group are Central African Customs and Economic Union (UDEAC), Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC) and the Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL).

26. With the assistance of ECA, the Central African subregional meeting was held at Libreville, Gabon from 22 to 26 October 1990 under the chairmanship of the Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS). The meeting was attended by eight of the ten member countries as well as by representatives from CAPTAC, CEPGL, the World Bank, ITU and UNDP. Only Rwanda and Sao Tome and Principe were not represented.

27. The participants representing the national co-ordinating committees gave presentations of the situation and development of the transport and communications systems in their respective countries as well as the strategies and programmes envisaged for the second Decade.

28. The subregional intergovernmental organizations, namely ECCAS, CEPGL likewise elaborated the strategies and programmes pertaining to the relevant situation in the subregion. The representatives of the various sectoral working groups also presented the proposed strategies for each sector of transport and communications.

29. At the end of the presentation of the national, subregional and sectoral papers, and the discussions and debates which followed thereafter, strategic and priority programmes were developed. These include:

(a) The corridor approach for the development of the multimodal transport system;

(b) Maintenance and rehabilitation of the existing transport and communications infrastructure;

(c) The creation of manufacturing capabilities for spare parts, modules, and organizing central maintenance workshops;

(d) Training and human resources development; and

(e) Facilitation of traffic.

D. North Africa

30. ECA organized a meeting for the North African subregion from 8 to 12 October 1990 in Addis Ababa, where four of the countries, namely Egypt, Mauritania, Morocco and the Sudan were represented by their respective national co-ordinators, who presented their national strategies and programmes. Algeria was represented at the meeting by a member of its Embassy in Addis Ababa. The consolidated strategy and programme for the subregion was to be finalized after the next meeting of Arab Ministers of Transport which had been scheduled to take place in Cairo. Unfortunately, the strategy and programme for the subregion have not been finalized, although it had been expected that this would be done before the Abuja meeting of February 1991.

IV. SECTORAL WORKING GROUPS

31. Besides the subregional working groups reported on above, seven subsectoral working groups were set up to prepare the strategies and programmes in their respective subsectors. The account of activities of the seven subsectoral working groups is presented below.

A. Roads and road transport

32. This working group is led by the World Bank and its other members are ECA, OAU, ADB, TAHA, ILO, UNDP and UNCTAD. The work assigned to the various members of the groups is as follows:

(a) World Bank: Rural transport and feeder roads; conditions of African roads and rehabilitation requirements, road transport;

(b) ECA: Safety, facilitation (physical and non-physical), creation of African Highway Association;

(c) ILO: Labour-intensive based maintenance and construction alternatives; and

(d) UNCTAD (in collaboration with ECA): General transport facilitation.

33. The agencies have all carried out their respective responsibilities and the working group met in Abidjan in July 1990 to review its work. Following the meeting, the group issued the Roads subsector strategy paper in December 1990.

B. Railways

34. The group is led by the Union of African Railways (UAR) and its other members are ECA, World Bank, OAU, ADB, ILO, UNDP and UNCTAD.

35. The group met in Abidjan in May 1990 to review its work. The group's report on African railway objectives, strategies and guidelines for the preparation of the UNTACDA II programme has not yet been completed.

C. Urban transport

36. The subsectoral group on urban transport is co-ordinated by the World Bank and its other members are ECA, OAU, UAR, UNDP and the African section of International Bus Owners Association.

37. The group's work is sub-divided as follows:

(a) ECA: Report on status of road safety in Africa;

(b) UAR: Report on mass transit transport in African cities;

(c) ILO: Report on ILO experience in urban transport problems;

(d) TRRL: Report on research topics of relevance to urban transport in Africa;

(e) AUPT: Report on public transport in African cities; and

(f) World Bank: Draft strategy document for the urban transport component of UNTACDA II.

38. On 10 May 1990, the group met in Brussels and established its work programme and schedule of activities and identified technical assistance needs as well as modalities for the mobilization of resources for its work.

39. The group subsequently met in Nairobi in July to review the subsector strategy and held subregional discussions in July/August 1990 to harmonize subregional strategies. The subsectoral strategy report of the group was completed by the end of the year (1990).

D. Water-based and multimodal transport

40. This working group is co-ordinated by UNCTAD and its other members are ECA, IMO, MINCONMAR, Inter-governmental Standing Committee on Shipping (ISCOS), OAU, UNDP, the Port Management Associations, ILO, Arab Maritime Transport Academy (AMTA), ADB and World Bank. The group first met in April 1990 and held a follow-up meeting in Geneva in July 1990. The group has prepared a report of the strategy and programme of the subsector for UNTACDA II.

E. Air transport

41. The air transport subsectoral working group is co-ordinated by ECA and its meetings are chaired by AFCAC. Other members of the group include AFRAA, ICAO, OAU, UNDP, ADB, ASECNA and National Civil Aviation Training Organization of Egypt (NCATO).

42. Responsibilities were assigned so that each member of the group prepared a base-line assessment of air transport in the area of its competence.

43. In August 1990, the group met in Dakar, Senegal under the auspices of AFCAC to review and finalize the various contributions by its members. After that meeting, ECA prepared a draft consolidated report of the strategies and programme of the air transport subsector for UNTACDA II.

44. This draft was subsequently presented by ECA in each of the subregional meetings and in December 1990, ECA organized a meeting in Addis Ababa where the document was finalized, taking into account the reactions and observations of the subregional groups.

F. Telecommunications and broadcasting

45. ITU is the co-ordinator of this group, whose other members include ECA, PATU, OAU, ADB, UNDP, UNESCO and URTNA.

46. The group met from 18 to 21 April 1990 in Addis Ababa and agreed on its work schedule and division of tasks. The group's draft report was prepared and distributed by ITU to all the members for comments.

47. The draft report was presented to the Central African subregional meeting in Libreville (22 to 26 October 1990) and to the West African subregional meeting in Ouagadougou (29 October to 2 November 1990) and after some improvements was submitted to the Eastern and Southern African subregional meeting in Lusaka (4 to 7 December 1990).

48. The final version of the report was distributed in Abuja, during the meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning (7 and 8 February 1991).

G. Postal services

49. The postal services subsectoral working group is co-ordinated by the Universal Postal Union (UPU) and its other members are ECA, Pan-African Postal Union (PAPU), OAU and UNDP.

50. ECA convened the first meeting of the group from 18 to 21 April 1990 during which time the groups responsibilities were determined and distributed.

51. UPU prepared and submitted an interim report of the group to the RMC in September 1990. UPU also prepared the strategy report of the group which, after revision, was presented to the West African subregional group in Ouagadougou in November 1990 and the final version was distributed at the Abuja Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning.

V. REGIONAL ACTIVITIES

52. At the regional level, ECA as lead agency was responsible for co-ordinating the activities of the various groups. Assistance was provided to the NCCs as well as to subregional and subsectoral groups. ECA also actively participated and contributed to the work of the various subsectoral and subregional working groups, the Resource Mobilization Committee and the IACC.

53. The RMC met in March, July, September and December 1990 to draw up the guidelines for the various working groups, review the strategy that was being formulated and make recommendations for improvement. At its meeting in December 1990, the RMC reviewed the entire draft strategy and programme prior to its submission to the IACC which also met in December to consider the draft programme.

54. The draft programme was consolidated and finalized by ECA in January 1991 and was considered again by the RMC and IACC before presenting it to the eighth meeting of African Intergovernmental Experts on Transport, Communications and to the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning in early February 1991. At that meeting held on 7 nd 8 February 1991 in Abuja, Nigeria, the Ministers approved the draft programme of UNTACDA II without any list of projects. However, it also stressed that the UNTACDA II programme would only be complete when it included projects which will be implemented during the Decade. Consequently, an extraordinary meeting of the Conference has been set for 7 and 8 May 1991 in Addis Ababa to review and approve the initial list of projects to be included in the programme.

55. The above decision was based on the recommendations of the Resource Mobilization Committee which were endorsed both by the IACC and the Experts, that no project be included in the programme unless and until its financial and economic viability have been demonstrated through a complete analysis of all relevant information (cost, justification, rate of return, etc.).

56. The Ministers further decided that the RMC should prepare an initial list of projects for the programme based on projects which had already been submitted to ECA as well as any new projects which will have been submitted to ECA by the end of February 1991. The subregional organizations will participate in this selection process by working with their respective member countries to identify projects and collect all necessary information for preparing the profiles for those projects.

57. Projects to be included in future in the programme can be submitted on a continuous basis, but admitted every two years during the regular meetings of the Conference. In addition, mid-term evaluations of the programme will be carried out after every three years of the programme (i.e., 1994 and 1997) and a final evaluation in 2000.

58. It should be emphasized that serious difficulties were encountered in screening projects for the programme, mainly as a result of the fact that several countries did not establish NCCs; that not all NCCs so far established were fully functional; that only 26 NCCs had actually submitted their national inputs to the programme; and that a large number of national and subregional projects and programmes which have been submitted lacked adequate data and information. As a direct result of the above, the Resource Mobilization Committee, one of whose main tasks is to thoroughly screen projects to ensure that they conform to the established criteria in order to attract financing was unable to carry out the necessary project screening.

59. In view of the above facts, the Conference allowed more time for project preparation and submission, for the RMC to carry out projects screening and has scheduled an extraordinary meeting in May at which the initial list of projects will be adopted.

I. INTRODUCTION

1. The United Nations Water Conference (UNWC) convened at Mar del Plata, Argentina, in 1977 was the first global meeting on water at a very high policy-making level. It recognized that effective and efficient management of water resources with a basic framework for its development, protection, utilization and management can contribute significantly towards improving the national economic and social conditions. All Member States of the United Nations approved and recommended the implementation of the Action Plan comprehensively known as the Mar del Plata Action Plan (MPAP). (1)

2. Since 1977, efforts have been made to implement this Action Plan at the national and regional levels in Africa with the support of the international community. Subsequently various reports were prepared by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to apprise governments on progress and problems encountered in the implementation process.

3. This present report dwells on the progress or lack thereof in the development of the water sector within the framework of MPAP at the end of this past decade. It also provides information on the future outlook and on the lessons learnt as situations unfolded new experiences. More importantly, it points to the challenges in the 1990s and beyond. In this regard it outlines the general direction and identifies the main steps necessary for achieving a higher rate of progress in the implementation of MPAP during 1990s and beyond.

4. The information and data used for this report are drawn from numerous sources provided by governments, the United Nations system of organizations as well as by other bodies to ECA. Some of the recent studies prepared in this respect cover only a partial population of Africa and the assumption/projection was needed to extend it to get the regional picture. Wherever possible these data and information are supplemented by those procured from surveys and mission findings.

5. The report has three parts. Part I is the introduction, part II contains appraisal of activity areas and related issues of concern. This part provides the regional picture regarding the current state of development, the problems encountered and the outlook for the future. In part III is the strategy and action proposals for the 1990s are outlined. The secretariat invites review of and comments on this document by the meeting and will appreciate guidelines for future actions in this regard.

II. APPRAISAL OF WATER DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

A. Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation

Review and appraisal

6. In November 1980, the General Assembly proclaimed the period 1981-1990 as the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD) during which member States would make commitment to bring about sustainable improvement in the standards and levels of service in drinking water supply and sanitation for their people by the year 1990. In assessing the Decade it can be cited that impressive numbers of people were served. It can also be underscored that at the end of the Decade results have fallen short of expectations. In efforts to meet the

objectives and goals set during the Decade, each country was moving at different paces. The progress made is therefore, measured on the basis of the overall impact to reflect the regional picture.

7. The latest available evaluation of the progress in achieving the goals of IDWSSD was by WHO in 1988. (2) By the end of 1988, an additional 40 million urban residents in the African region were supplied with adequate and safe water supply, while 52 million were provided with appropriate sanitation. These additional supplies brought the percentage coverage of urban water supply and of sanitation to 77 per cent (93.667 million) and to 79 per cent (96.100 million) respectively. For the rural areas an additional 87 million people were supplied with good drinking water and another 1 million people were provided with sanitation facilities. These achievements brought the rural coverages to 26 per cent (88.573 million) and 17 per cent (57.913 million) respectively for water supply and sanitation.

8. The estimated coverage by 1990 for urban water supply was 77 per cent (103.806 million) maintaining the same percentage as was in 1988 and for urban sanitation it was 80 per cent (108.967). By the same period rural water supply was expected to increase slightly in percentage terms to 27 per cent (95.327 million) and while sanitation coverage was likely to reduce to 16 per cent. ECA estimates that the present annual rate of coverage is only 25 per cent and 18 per cent of the rates required to achieve the objectives of the IDWSSD (100 per cent coverage) for drinking water supply and sanitation respectively in the urban areas of Africa by 2000. In the case of rural areas the present annual rate of progress is only 16 per cent and 0.5 per cent of the rates required to achieve the objectives for water supply and sanitation respectively by year 2000. (3) There is therefore a considerable amount of unfinished business which must engage the attention of Governments in the 1990s and beyond.

9. The conclusion that can be derived is that, in the urban areas the effort in water supply and sanitation has been keeping balance while in rural areas the sanitation sector has been neglected. The situation in rural areas is disconcerting since the rate of achievement is low and worsening. The net result has been that the unserved population has been on the increase.

10. A number of factors are responsible for impeding progress. The question of financial resources continues to be one of the serious constraints. Partly as a result of Structural Adjustment Programmes, government expenditures in social services have been reduced. Consequently national budgets of the African countries are less able to support the sectoral investment needed. External investment funds have also been reduced, because of the debt burden which the countries are finding difficult to service. Systems which depend upon central government subsidies to meet their operation and maintenance costs have had these already inadequate subsidies either reduced or completely removed.

Prospects and issues

11. The achievement in drinking water supply and sanitation during the Decade has been painfully disappointing due mainly to natural and man-made hazards as well as demographic pressures and internal and external economic and political environments. Projections of current trends indicate that Africa will continue to suffer from these consequences. The widening gap of the unserved population will have serious health and environmental impacts that would preclude the attainment of desired living conditions. The situation in urban areas, particularly in large cities could be

alarming. The increase in population in 31 cities in Africa over the next decade is expected to be in the order of 22.5 million. As a result, in relative terms, Africa particularly sub-Saharan Africa would fall short of progress anticipated in other regions and they would be worse off by the end of the century than they were at the start of 1980. Clearly the target of providing clean water and sanitation for all even by year 2000 will be very difficult to reach.

12. There is a strong possibility that countries will choose those most easily served to be served first. The experience in rural areas has been to serve larger communities and leave dispersed population until later. In urban areas the bulk of the work to be done is in the difficult peri-urban areas. In the early years of the coming decade, there will be a lag as governments adjust to their new target groups even though water supply and sanitation for the unserved population of the rural and urban communities will remain priority areas up to the years 2000 and 2010.

13. The future strategy should be based on establishing realistic targets by governments, promoting population and family planning policies, adopting low-cost technologies, introducing cost-sharing mechanisms by means of tariff policies, increasing community participation particularly of women in rural areas where the need is greatest, ensuring that drinking water and sanitation programmes take place in the context of national planning and are integrated within the framework for environment and sustainable development. Privatization of the maintenance and operation of water supply systems and orientation to the rural sector in the package for rural development programmes is perceived as a sound approach ensuring sustainability.

14. Two important events have taken place to build up the momentum as the end of the IDWSSD and the 1990s dawned. One of these was the Global Consultation held in New Delhi, India, from 10 to 14 September 1990. (4) From the statement issued at the end of the consultations, four guiding principles emerged for the United Nations organizations, international community and non-governmental organizations to intensify their efforts based on the: (i) protection of the environment and safeguarding health through integrated management of water resources and liquid and solid water; (ii) institutional reforms, promoting an integrated approach including changes in procedures, attitudes and behaviour; (iii) community management of services; and (iv) sound financial practices achieved through better management of existing assets. The Consultation agreed that the sectoral challenge in the 1990s for most developing countries would be "some for all, rather than more for some". A follow-up action for the implementation of the approaches is prepared and a set of recommendations for action by governments is outlined.

15. The second event was the African Water Supply and Sanitation Sector Conference held in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, on 10 and 11 May 1990. (5) From this Conference emerged a statement known as the "Abidjan Accord" that endorsed the agreement contained in an annex entitled "Guidelines for the Development of Country Strategies for the 1990s". The annex comprehensively elaborated on the principles for strategy formulation and the actions required to implement it.

16. The new strategies and fresh approaches as well as the stronger commitment by the world community to support the implementation of water supply and sanitation programmes in Africa injects a new hope for better attainment of goals. This momentum with the intensified efforts by African Governments will obviously bring in positive changes in the realization of sector programmes in the 1990s and beyond.

B. Water and agriculture

Review and appraisal

17. Resolution III of the MPAP recognized the enormous deficit of food and other agricultural productions and called for measures that would cover a wide spectrum of activities and outlined a specific "Action Programme on Water for Agriculture." Particular attention was drawn to land and water management both under irrigated and rainfed cultivation with due regard to long-term as well as short-term productivity. (1)

18. Despite overall improvements, serious food problems persisted in Africa for over two decades since 1970. Food production under rainfed conditions rose at 1.4 per cent per annum in the period 1970-1980 against estimated population growth rate of 3 per cent per annum. (6) It was at its worst in 1983 and 1984, showing a decline of 0.8 and 0.4 per cent respectively. Severe set-backs prevailed in Southern Africa and in the Sahel with a decline reaching 10 and 11 per cent respectively in 1983/1984. In Central Africa, a low growth rate of about 1.6-1.7 per cent a year occurred during 1983-1985. (7)

19. With 93.5 per cent of the cultivated area under rainfed conditions the annual fluctuations in the size of African food and agricultural production can largely be attributed to the variability in the rainfall regime. This has been amply demonstrated since the recovery. In 1985, there was a marked increase in regional recovery in food production of 10 per cent. This was followed by a further increase of 4 per cent in 1986. But 1987 again agricultural output increased by only 0.5 per cent. All the subregions were reported to have performed poorly during the year. The poor harvests were due to prolonged dry spells and unusually late rains. (8) Aside from unreliability of rainfall, was population pressure which often forced farmers to work on shrinking farms and marginal lands to maintain household income. This problem has been increasingly felt over the last 30 years when a corresponding decrease occurred in land availability.

20. In the case of food production, cereal production in the region fell by 8 per cent in 1987. At the same time, production of pulses decreased by 5.3 per cent while that of tubers rose by a mere 1.6 per cent with cassava production stagnating at 106 million tons. The situation however was not uniform throughout the region. In North, West and Central Africa, the situation was generally satisfactory; in East Africa it was mixed whereas in the Sahel it was estimated to have been more than 70 per cent below that of the recorded production in 1986.

21. Problems of food production in Africa vary widely and individual countries need to tailor their approaches to particular requirements. Nevertheless the midst of enormous variety of ecological zones, micro-climates and soil conditions, requiring specialized crops and farming techniques, there is a distinct commonality to take policy measures to spur agricultural development aimed at: (i) increasing the role of private sector inpricing and marketing agricultural products and farm inputs, and in improving financial intermediation services to farmers; (ii) identifying and disseminating new technologies to increase productivity; (iii) improving the security of land tenure and enhancing environmental protection; (iv) developing rural infrastructure in order to strengthen rural-urban economic links and improve marketing; (v) encouraging popular participation by strengthening rural peoples and associations, including women, to play greater roles in decision-making; and (vi) promoting regional co-operation, especially in food trade and joint research.

22. FAO estimates that in 1982, Africa, south of the Sahara, irrigated some 5 million hectares. The irrigated area has been increasing at a rate of 150,000 hectares per year since the mid-1960s. Seventy per cent of the total irrigated area is concentrated in three countries: the Sudan (1,750,000 hectares), Madagascar (960,000 hectares) and Nigeria (850,000 hectares). Mali, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zimbabwe and Senegal each irrigated between 100,000 and 160,000 hectares totalling 530,000 hectares or 10 per cent. Of the total of 5 million irrigated hectares, 2.1 million hectares have been developed by governments, mostly under major modern schemes; 2.4 million hectares are irrigated using traditional methods; and the remaining 0.5 million hectares are modern private sector developments. The 5 million irrigated hectares contribute 5.3 million tons (10 per cent) to regional cereal supplies and 6 per cent to 8 per cent to supplies of roots and vegetables. According to Food Outlook (FAO) of 1989, Africa has continued to be a net importer of cereals since the rainfall recovery. Recurrent droughts have accelerated the rising trend for cereal imports to 28 million tons in 1984. (9) Hence irrigation can still contribute a lot to bring about self-sufficiency in this important item of food.

23. The regional distribution of land under irrigated agriculture remains largely unchanged since the drought, at about 9.5 million hectares, with some 50 per cent of this area in Egypt, the Sudan and Morocco. Of this area 6.1 million ha is classified as modern with the remaining 3.4 million ha constituting traditional small-scale projects. (10)

Current trends and future prospects

24. Presently emphasis seems to be on rehabilitation and expansion of old schemes which because of improper management have not made the required contribution to food production. This is particularly the case with schemes in Botswana, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya and Somalia. In the North African countries particularly Egypt, considerable efforts are being made to improve irrigation efficiency in view of the current limiting water supply from the Nile River.

25. For the future, it is planned by the CILSS countries in the Sahel region to bring 905,000 hectares under irrigation by 1998 in order to increase food and agricultural production. Irrigated land will be developed mainly in Senegal and Mauritania where the construction of the Manatali dam on the Senegal River will make possible the irrigation of 400,000 ha (11). Another 300,000 ha are expected to be developed in Mali in the Niger River Valley. In the North African region where there is already a tradition with irrigated agriculture (Egypt and the Sudan) it is planned to bring an additional 2 million hectares under irrigation in the Nile Valley to meet the food needs of the growing populations. It is expected also that in the upstream countries of the Nile Valley some 400,000 ha will be brought under irrigation to augment food production in Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya.

26. The economic viability of modern irrigation schemes continue to be constrained by high costs of construction, operation and maintenance and by poor production performance leading to a low overall profitability of irrigation. (12) In view of these experiences it is necessary for each country to critically review the role irrigation should play in its food and agricultural production strategies having regard to its climate, land, water and human resources.

27. Over the whole of the region, it is anticipated that provided reasonable progress can be made in bringing about fundamental changes and that adequate external support will be forthcoming up

to the year 2010, (6); (a) modern schemes will be developed at an average rate of 50,000 hectares per year; (b) rehabilitation of existing schemes will be at 25,000 hectares per year; and (c) expansion of traditional and small-scale irrigation areas at 150,000 hectares per year. It is apparent from recent trends in funding that these rates will have to be revised downwards.

28. To advance agricultural development, FAO has prepared an "International Action Programme on Water and Sustainable Agricultural Development (IAP-WASAD)" as a strategy for the implementation of the MPAP for the 1990s. (13) The IAP-WASAD identifies five priority areas for action to realize sustainable agricultural development with special reference to water use. The priority areas of action include: (i) efficient water use at the farm level; (ii) water logging, salinity and drainage control; (iii) water quality management; (iv) small-scale water programmes; and (v) scarce water resources development. The five areas require common actions consisting of: development of adequate data bases, adaptive research, institutional strengthening, human resources development, environmental protection and technology transfer, and infrastructure development. The objective of the IAP-WASAD is to inject a new momentum to rekindle the spirit of Mar del Plata with a new commitment for its implementation during the 1990s. The actions proposed under the IAP-WASAD constitute a 10-year programme which will contribute to agricultural development in Africa through optimum use of water and associated natural resources. The proposed programme will help increase the capacity of the organizations of the United Nations system to act as catalysts and to assist in a concerted manner in the formulation of policies and programmes and in the implementation of field projects.

C. Water resources assessment

Review of activities and appraisal

29. The first recommendation of the MPAP stressed on the need for greater knowledge about the quantity and quality of surface and ground-water resources, and for their monitoring to guide the management of those resources. UNESCO and WMO under the International Hydrological Programme (IHP) and Operational Hydrological Programme (OHP) have respectively devoted special projects for Africa towards the scientific and operational aspects of water resources assessment. Donor agencies (like CIDA, SIDA and USAID) have under various projects helped some African countries to strengthen their water resources assessment activities with training, equipment and field and laboratory facilities. Unfortunately, the meteorological and hydrological services which are responsible for basic water resources assessment activities have suffered serious deterioration in the past 10 years or so due partly to inadequate funds being made available to them. Assistances have been provided by multilateral agencies like the UNDP and the World Bank with WMO, UNESCO, FAO or DTCD as executing agencies. Unfortunately these efforts have been allowed to run down because national governments could not operate and maintain the systems effectively.

30. During 1970-1976 and again in the early 1980s, there was an improvement in general as regards large-scale water balance studies, water resources maps, including ground-water, and the statistical analysis of rainfall and streamflow. The importance of sediment and water quality observations is recognized, but network development and operation are hampered by lack of equipment, logistic support and laboratory facilities. Ground-water data collection networks are found mostly in areas of urgent water demand, such as large cities and irrigation schemes, but not all countries have appreciated the need for systematic monitoring of the resource.

31. Efforts for the assessment of sources of pollution and measures for preventing or limiting the degradation of water quality are not generally applied. At the same time the problem of pollution from domestic, industrial and agricultural sources has been growing. Several countries are faced with problems of bacteriological and contaminating, organic waste loadings, suspended solids and nitrates pollutants. There is a threat of increased problems from intensified agriculture and the associated increase in fertilizer and pesticide uses. Many of the shallow ground-water resources appear to be contaminated by pathogenic agents, largely from faecal sources, and there is absence of systematic water quality monitoring. (14)

32. Within UNESCO's IHP there are programmes directed to identify gaps and weaknesses and to initiate research in surface and ground-water availability in arid and semi-arid areas of Africa. There is also a special purpose programme to consider hydrological and water management problems and issues expected to arise in the humid tropics due to population increase which is expected to be 6.2 billion by 2000 with 50 per cent located in the tropics, almost all of which are developing countries. The full implementation of these programmes presented in the reports of a Seminar (15) and Colloquium (16) should lead to a better assessment of the water resources in both the water deficit and water surplus areas of the continent.

33. Another project within the framework of the IHP, is FREND (Flow Regimes from Experimental and Network Data) which aims to use the results obtained from representative and experimental basins in Africa to monitor natural and man-made changes in hydrological regimes. UNESCO and WMO have made efforts to introduce to the Hydrological Services in Africa the methodology contained in the handbook on Evaluation of National Water Resources Assessment Activities. (17) The handbook will enable countries to evaluate their activities and recommend measures for filling gaps and strengthening their services in the areas of: (i) institutional framework for water resources assessment; (ii) data collection, processing, storage and retrieval; (iii) areal assessment of water balance components; (iv) data for water resources planning; (v) manpower, education and training; and (vi) research. In 1987 the World Bank also started almost a similar project with UNDP funding under the Sub-Saharan Africa Hydrological Assessment Project. (18) These projects will help in the improvement of knowledge and better acquisition of water resources data.

34. Within the framework of the Operational Hydrology Programme of WMO the Regional Association I (AFRICA) Working Group on Hydrology held its fifth session in Conakry in November 1988. (19) The meeting reviewed among other things national reports dealing with various aspects of water resources assessment activities. It also considered reports by two subregional centres - CIEH and AGRHYMET - which are based in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso) and Niamey (Niger) respectively. Further, the reports of Rapporteurs which assigned various tasks on operational hydrology problems such as hydrological networks, hydrological forecasting, water quality and sediment transport measurements and hydrological data and services, were reviewed.

35. On ground water in Africa UNESCO and OAU are funding the preparation of hydrologeological maps of Africa. DTCD in 1988 issued reports on groundwater development for individual countries in Africa. An extensive use of ground water in the Nubian Sandstone in Egypt, the Sudan, and Libyan Arab Jamahiriya is made for drinking water supply, livestock watering and extensive irrigation particularly in Egypt. Libya is currently engaged in a colossal ground-water development project known as the Great Man-made River for various sectoral uses.

Current trends and outlook

36. The current trends and outlooks for the 1990s show that: (i) there is a strong need for co-ordination and appropriate legislation; (ii) as regards the data collection activities, the current deterioration of the networks will worsen in the 1990s, if resource allocation to the Hydrological Services are not increased to operate and maintain what has already been established. The availability of finance or lack of it will similarly have its effect on areal assessment, on data and information for planning as well as research and development; (iii) that in many countries the brain drain of trained and experienced staff is likely to continue unless salaries, wages and other conditions of service are considerably improved.

D. Shared water resources

Review and appraisal

37. On shared water resources the United Nations Water Conference recommended that action should be taken to generate data on which future management could be based and to develop institutions and understandings for multi-purpose developments that are socially, environmentally and economically sustainable. It is recognized that the drainage basin provides a unique geographical entity to manage the interrelated and crucial resources of climate, water, land including vegetation cover, animal, aquatic and human resources.

38. Africa's general record in the process of development and conservation of the resources of international river basins depicts that the anticipated results are not achieved. There are many reasons for this shortfalls. Essentially the few existing basin organizations like Chad, Gambia, Senegal, Niger and Kagera have been subjected to various constraints, some for physical and climatic reasons, others tied to socio-cultural characteristics and the priorities of national economies. These later being reflected in financial, manpower and institutional limitations and problems of management and in finding technologies suited to their specific conditions. The second and equally important reason relates to the failure to apply the concept of multi-purpose planning. There has been over-emphasis on hydro-power development for urban, commercial and industrial uses at the expense of resilient ecology, human population and agricultural potential including livestock, forestry and fisheries. Most of the organizations started out with ambitious programmes that demanded huge capital outlays. Invariably River Basin planning has been the prerogative of most energy and irrigation agencies and this needs to have a new perception to encompass all other aspects of economic and social significance.

39. The experiences and lessons learnt by the existing river and Lake Basin organizations have been useful because almost all of these organizations are effecting significant transformation often resulting in structural reduction, with their major focus to basin planning, and identification of programmes which benefit member States. Cautious steps are being taken to keep programmes to manageable sizes. Close attention is also being given to choose executive heads on the basis of technical and managerial merits rather than on purely political grounds. Consequently the organizations are regaining the confidence and the political will and financial support of their member countries.

40. While action should be taken to initiate co-operative development, this must emerge from each participating State with a clear recognition that international development represents the best means of achieving national objectives. Such recognition cannot be achieved unless the States have the capability to assess their own domestic alternatives against the international alternatives. National planning institutions must then be capable of carrying out that assessment and thus international assistance should be directed at strengthening the national planning efforts.

E. Floods, droughts, and environmental degradation

Floods

41. Water resources is a very vital ingredient in national and regional development perspectives. Its control and conservation are necessary not only for development purposes but also to avoid the ravages that could disrupt normal life by floods, droughts and other environmental degradation.

42. There are many parts in Africa subjected to floods like the low-lying areas around the bank of Niger River in Mali which cause damage to crops, homesteads and cattle. There are recurring floods in Western Kenya as the Nyando overflows its banks and outflanking of the bridges upstream. The unregulated catchment of Shire in Malawi produces peak floods in the wet season sometimes with catastrophic consequences. Tanzania had experienced floods from rivers like Rufiji, Wami, Maragarazi and others. These were but a few examples of the incidences and of damages caused by floods. The problem exists in a number of other countries in Africa. In some irrigation projects, it becomes necessary to ensure flood protection. Examples are Tokar and Gash projects in the Sudan, Ambalbe project in Madagascar, Johar in Somalia and projects in Gabon and Nigeria.

43. In 1988 there were serious floods in Kenya, Nigeria, Gabon, and the Sudan leading to loss of life and dislocation of economic activities. In fact after the drought, these floods called for another form of emergency relief assistance as was demonstrated in the case of the Sudanese floods. In 1989 floods occurred in West Africa (Mali, Senegal and Ghana). The flooding which occurred with the recovery of the rains, continued in 1989 and 1990. Between February 1989 and September 1990, life has been devastated by four floods in Algeria and Tunisia; six in Djibouti, Somalia, Ethiopia and the Sudan; 11 in Mozambique, Zambia, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania, and Kenya and one in Madagascar. The devastation ranged from loss of 52 lives in Tanzania; 100,000 and 400,000 being homeless in Malawi and Ethiopia/Sudan respectively; to widespread crops destruction.

44. Flood poses difficult problems in many countries of the African region. This underlines the necessity for incorporating protection and control of floods in any scheme in the context of water resources development planning. It is also necessary for attention to be given to both structural and non-structural measures such as flood warning and forecasting systems to mitigate damages.

Droughts

45. The most recent experience of a severe and devastating drought with wide geographical distribution was that in 1981-1984. At its height in 1984, the drought affected 20 countries and some 30 million people in sub-Saharan Africa. It claimed numerous human and animal lives and left millions who survived in destitute conditions. For many countries it meant being economically crippled and sliding down in development.

46. It is known, that drought is a recurrent phenomenon and similar droughts in Africa have occurred in the 1940s, the 1910s, the early 19th Century and the mid-18th Century. Although there is no clear evidence of its periodicities, there is a speculation that the downward trend in rainfall may continue, relieved by periods of wetter-than-average rainfall. In Africa, the areas with high risk are those with failure of seasonal rainfall and those that are vulnerable to human and animal pressures such as the Sahel and semi-arid regions of Southern Africa. It is therefore necessary to take effective soil and water conservation measures in these regions.

47. During the drought in the 1980s, many countries established emergency relief bodies to co-ordinate the delivery of assistance to combat or mitigate the effects of the drought. It is necessary that governments do not disband these bodies with the end of the emergency. Rather, they should be made to handle in addition to drought, other calamities like floods, earthquake and man-made hazards. The emergency institutions under new structures will have to monitor the weather situation and other phenomena (which lead to hazard) and be ready with contingency plans to respond to these emergencies.

Environmental degradation

48. In high rainfall, high productivity zones, increasing land pressure and fragmentation of land holdings have resulted in fertility decline. In low-rainfall and drought-prone areas, over-grazing and shifting cultivation on increasingly marginal lands continue to undermine the already fragile ecological balance. Over the past two decades, Africa's semi-arid lands have come under pressure by people and livestock at a rate considerably faster than the more fertile areas. Consequently, conditions of hunger, and even famine are increasingly common in these areas as is the occurrence of drought. This sets in train endemic poverty - poverty of land, and resources to continue. The continuing depletion of forest cover in search of cultivable land and/or fuelwood by the poor make the agro-pastoralists and herdsmen appear as both perpetrators and victims of this phenomenon. A root cause of deterioration in most countries of Africa is the struggle for survival since poverty, environmental degradation and population growth interact in the dynamics of the chain process. At present there is a deficit of fuelwood supply in North Africa and sub-humid and mountainous East African countries of 28.5 million cubic metres. This deficit is expected to increase to 309 million cubic metres to cover all the countries of the region with the exception of those in the humid Central African subregion by the year 2010. (6)

Activities in progress

49. As part of the efforts to conserve vegetation, various forms of renewable energy sources are being promoted at the country, subregional, and regional levels. For instance, tree planting is being promoted in the countries of the Sahel region, Botswana, Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Ghana, the Sudan, Ethiopia and Kenya. Also, agro-forestry which will enable food and agricultural production to be carried out and at the same time enable trees to be grown for fuel and other uses is being promoted in a number of other countries. In 1989, Nigeria has been granted Ecu 9.4 m under the Lome II Convention to support an afforestation project in Katsina State in the north of the country. In Burkina Faso villagers have developed a technique which uses stones to arrest soil erosion and conserve water for crop production. The village of Doblo with about 7000 inhabitants have used the technique to increase yields considerably. In the Sahel countries dune fixation and the planting of shelter belts are among the techniques being used to check the encroachment of the Sahara desert.

Energy conservation measures through the use of improved stoves that prevent loss of heat during cooking are also being promoted in countries in the Sahel, Kenya, Tanzania and Ghana. Research and development in the use of solar energy is another activity being encouraged. Leading in this field is the ECA-sponsored African Regional Centre for Solar Energy based in Bujumbura and the EEC-sponsored Centre Regionale de Energie Solaire based in Niamey. These institutions need to be strengthened so as to be more effective. Action should also go to encourage the use of other sources of energy including crop and animal residues and industrial wastes like saw dust, etc.

50. Following the recommendations of the African Ministerial Conference on Environment held in Cairo in December 1985, a River and Lake Basin Committee has been established. It is to ensure that environmental concerns are taken care of in the development of river basins. The main mechanism for promoting this is UNEP's recommended approach of Environmentally Sound Management of River and Lake Basins. Secondly the Water Resources networks consisting of national focal points and a Regional Co-ordinating Unit located in Cairo was established in 1988, following preliminary meetings in 1987. (20) It will co-ordinate and enhance exchange information and experiences for development of water resources in an environmentally sound manner. Thirdly in 1988 the establishment of village Pilot and Stock Raising Projects in a number countries were started. Food, energy and livestock production will be tried on a sustainable basis in these project areas, and the results replicated in other parts of the continent.

51. Early Warning Systems are being established in the countries of the region with the assistance of FAO, whereby data on agro-meteorological parameters are collected, analysed and the information disseminated to farmers to help them plan their food and agricultural production activities more effectively. Significant progress has been made in about 30 countries to establish these systems in the ministries of agriculture with the co-operation of the national meteorological services.

52. Following the drought of the 1980s, the ECA Conference of Ministers took a decision in 1985, to establish the African Centre of Meteorological Application for Development (ACMAD). (21) The objective of the Centre is to contribute to the socio-economic development of the African countries, through the use of meteoro-logical products and the creation of a new meteorological assistance system in Africa with a view to mitigating the effects of droughts, floods and cyclones, promoting knowledge of weather and climate and conserving natural resources.

53. In May 1989, governmental agencies and representatives of local communities in the CILSS countries of the Sahel met and agreed on the framework for future action consisting of: (22), (i) ecological rehabilitation to restore the degraded land asset; (ii) local level natural resources management in which responsibility will be shared with local communities; (iii) decentralized management to increase efficiency; (iv) land tenure reform to encourage local investments; (v) local credit and savings to increase local investment; (vi) women's participation to ensure the success of projects; (vii) information and training to share experiences; (viii) population control and development with the aim of improving the future. The three actors, viz. local communities, government agencies and the donors, agreed that they needed to work together in partnership for success to be achieved, and that none could go it alone.

54. The African Regional Conference on Environment and Sustainable Development in Uganda in June 1989 adopted strategies for restructuring the current structure of national economic production (23) and called for special attention to the rural sector with focus on: managing

demographic change and pressure; achieving food self-sufficiency and food security; encouraging efficient and equitable use of water resources; securing greater energy self-sufficiency; optimizing industrial production; maintaining species and ecosystems, and preventing and reversing desertification.

55. The World Bank is also offering assistance to countries to prepare National Environmental Action Plans. There is also a project under the World Climate Programme-Water, which is a study of the impact of climate variation and expected change from the "Green house" effect and other man-made activities that was started in the African region in 1988.

56. The World Commission on Environment and Development noted that mankind faces a threatened future because of inadequate environmental management and recommended that emphasis should be placed on planning for sustainable development which should be applied to sectoral ministries whose activities cause environmental damage. To this end emphasis must be placed on policies that would ensure the participation in an integrated manner of all sectors of development in environmental conservation. Appropriate policies and administrative instruments must therefore be developed that will cater for the needs of present and future generation.

F. Institutional and legal infrastructures for planning and management of water resources

Actions proposed and progress made

57. The ultimate goal of the MPAP was to bring about a better economic and social progress through accelerated development of water resources. The realization of this goal was foreseen to be achieved by means of appropriate institutional and legal infrastructures set up for orderly administration, planning and management of water resources. It emphasized co-ordination among all institutions responsible for water affairs and that each country would review existing legislation to enhance co-ordinated planning.

58. To improve the situation, some countries carried out institutional and legal reforms either on their own or forced by circumstances to effect changes. The result of these efforts is that some countries have strengthened the existing institutions, others created new ones like central policy-making and co-ordinating bodies and semi-autonomous public agencies; others have reassigned functions among institutions and still others have reassigned ministerial responsibilities for water agencies.

59. An assessment by ECA in November 1983 carried out on the basis of a questionnaire survey to which 22 countries responded showed that 14 countries had national water policies, only 2 had prepared Master Plans, while 16 were organizing to prepare such plans. Seventeen countries reported to have co-ordinating bodies, and only 5 were satisfied with the adequacy of their existing legislations.

Regional evaluation of institutional and legal infrastructures

60. The most recent study conducted by DTCD/DIESA in 1990 on institutional and legal infrastructures (24) reports that the recurring infrastructures existing today at the national level are many, but that a critical look reveals four main types. These are said to be characterized by the kind

of overall water policy- making or co-ordinating body that has emerged. Variations exist within each type but the main ones that can be identified are as follows:

(a) Type I: Within this institutional infrastructure, policy continues to be fragmented in various ministries dealing with water and expressed in legal enactments or administrative directives of agencies operating under these ministries. Examples of this type are in Ghana, Sierra Leone and in others;

(b) Type II: Within this institutional infrastructure, there is an overall water policy or co-ordinating body in the form of Water Resources Commission/Board. The other agencies be they autonomous, public corporations or departments of ministries are subordinate in one form or another to the Commission/Board. Ethiopia provides such an example;

(c) Type III: In this type of infrastructure there is an overall policy- making and co-ordinating body for water under a Ministry which has other responsibilities apart from water. The Ministry of Water Resources, Forestry, and Fisheries as in the Gambia is an example. Others are in Uganda, Zambia and Malawi.

(d) Type IV: In this type, a ministry solely for water resources has been set up to direct the policy for planning and management of water resources. Examples are Burkina Faso, Kenya and Nigeria.

61. In spite of the continuous efforts the countries are making to restructure their institutions and strengthen their laws, several problems still persist. It is noted that many countries have still not established, overall policy-making and co-ordinating bodies for giving central direction to water resources utilization conservation. Further, because of its ubiquitous nature, water responsibilities are divided among a number of ministries or departments and the functions overlap or have duplicity. So far only a few countries have key legislations covering water rights, and control of waste/effluent discharges and land degradation. In most countries linkages among agencies and sector ministries are weak, due to weak planning units at the agency and sector levels. While there appears to exist capabilities for planning at the national economic development (macro) level, the capabilities at the sector and project levels are weak. This arises mainly from inadequately trained staff and lack of opportunity to practise. This is mainly because sector and project level planning for which countries invariably seek external assistance, go to outside consultants, as a condition for giving aid. Apart from the use of the tariff structure, most demand management mechanisms are weak because of lack of rules and regulations for allocating water to users. It is noted that although the need for cost recovery is now realized, the situation is unsatisfactory in water supply, sanitation and irrigation sub-sectors. The issue has been politicized in almost every country and most governments are caught in very difficult situations between the need and the possibilities. Lack of inadequate funds which together with lack of trained personnel has resulted in unsatisfactory operation and maintenance of water supply and sanitation systems in most countries. The lack of key legislations in several countries continues to undermine effective environmental protection of surface and ground-waters. It is also noted that the mechanism for integrated multipurpose development of river basins as a basis for socio-economic development remains undefined in almost all countries. The question of explicitly identifying by the countries, of the agencies that should represent them on studies and development of water resources they share with neighbouring other states is still outstanding.

Outlook

62. The weakness in institutional infrastructure due to inadequate policies and legislations to guide the multi-dimensional aspects of water resources and its consequence in poor management and proliferation of authorities and duplication of efforts continue to undermine implementation of water resources development programmes. The strengthening of water development institutions including the adequacy of policies and planning is indispensable for development in the 1990s. The priority target for the future must be on building up national capabilities for proper planning, execution and management of water development programmes.

G. Water sector planning

63. The weaknesses which had attended the preparation and implementation of national water master plans in the early years of the MPAP have continued to persist. They relate to insufficient cross-sectoral harmonization, and reconciliation with the national development targets at the macro-economic level. The result is that the projects selected from perspective water sector plans to form the water programmes of the three- or five-year National Development Plans are too ambitious without national absorptive capacity to handle them.

64. In the past few years, attempts to correct the ills of the economies of a number of African countries, through Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) of the IMF and the World Bank have provided an indirect opportunity to deal with some of the weaknesses of the water sector plans. Among the measures of the SAP are the arresting of the balance-of-payment deficits, and the pruning down of government expenditures to levels that can be sustained by resources. Consequently the water sector like the other sectors is being reviewed in terms of objectives, targets, plans and resources in order to determine what can be funded having regard to the national resources and investment funds that can be expected from external sources. This has resulted in a number of water development plans being scaled down. The area of project preparation at the micro-level continues to be another weak area in planning. Again the SAP and the consultative meetings are helping to bring about improvements.

H. Mobilization of financial resources

65. The implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes by most countries in the region to correct their economic problems continued. These invariably have resulted in cuts in government expenditures. The implication is that new projects are either delayed or cannot take off, and existing systems are running down because of inadequate maintenance. On the external side, the United Nations system of organizations increased their disbursements from $31 million in 1973 to $184 million in 1985. (25) This represented an annual rate of growth of 16.9 per cent over the period. The highest rate of growth was in Africa, Asia and the Pacific. The lion's share of the disbursement went to drinking water supply and sanitation (50 per cent) followed by irrigation (24 per cent).

66. With regard to loans and credits from the World Bank, International Development Association (IDA), and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) total funding for water projects increased from $504 million in 1976 to $1,748 million in 1985. Of the total disbursements of $10,956 million over the 1976-1985 period 54.6 per cent went to agriculture, 28.7

per cent went to drinking water supply and sanitation, 15.4 per cent to hydropower and 1.3 per cent to navigation.

67. Loans and credits to African countries for irrigation projects were more to countries north of the Sahara than to countries south of the Sahara because of the less viable nature of irrigated agriculture in the south. In the area of drinking water supply disbursements to Africa were more to urban water supply and sanitation projects in countries where sufficient financial returns could be generated (e.g. Côte d'Ivoire, Kenya and Nigeria) than to rural areas where the socio-economic viability and cost recovery were questionable. The United Nations study concluded that globally, in spite of the increase in disbursements from the international community, the levels of achievement are much below what was estimated at the time of the United Nations Water Conference.

68. It is obvious that the ability of African Governments to increase their investment in the water sector cannot be expected to improve in the near future in view of the current political development in the world and the prevailing economic difficulties and the structural adjustment programmes which they are going through. It is therefore necessary that governments begin to implement a gradual but determined policy of cost recovery in the water sector.

I. Human resources development

69. The level of undergraduate courses in the countries is most important for the many and varied specialized human resources requirement. Unfortunately this is threatened, because of dwindling resources being made to the universities. This is partly to be blamed on the structural adjustment programmes which call for cuts in government recurrent and capital spending. It could be said that the problem even goes deeper as the first and second cycle institutions have equally been affected.

70. There is no doubt that spending on education is highest in almost every country in the region. (26) In 1981 and 1982, 20 per cent of the recurrent expenditure in the region was spent on education. This started to fall in 1983 and except for a brief recovery in 1985 it went down to 9.9 per cent of the expenditure in 1988. The impact of this is reflected on the school enrolment rate in the region. For the first cycle level (primary education) the annual growth rate of enrolment of 7.3 per cent which was recorded in 1970-1980 fell to 2.6 per cent over the period 1980-1987. For the secondary levels the enrolment growth rate over the same period fell from 11.9 per cent to 8.5 per cent and for the tertiary or university level the growth rate fell from 13.1 per cent to 7.7 per cent. The trend does not augur well for human resources development at the professional and technician levels in water resources and other specialities.

71. One of the most urgent training needs to which attention should be directed is in project planning and preparation at the micro-economic level, water resources sector planning and their relation to national development planning at macro-economic level. There are some post-graduate training programmes by UNESCO that provide an avenue to improve the human resources situation at the regional level. The Universities of Dar es Salaam and Burkina Faso also provide regional training courses. For technical training countries like Nigeria, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia have well-established schools, others like Ghana operate ad hoc training schools attached to hydrological and meteorological services or water supply agencies. The question of maintaining a continuous stream of students may has problems because of limited employment opportunities. This could be overcome by adopting the Nigerian, Ethiopian or Tanzanian approach where instead of

establishing a number of schools one national school can be established to train technicians for all water agency needs and with flexibility to respond to demands. At the informal level the mass literacy programmes have shown good results in many countries and this should continue to educate local people in various matters affecting them so as to mobilize and assure their intensified participation.

III. STRATEGY AND AREAS FOR ACTION IN THE 1990s

Key issues and problems

72. Africa is a region exhibiting complex patterns and striking paradoxes of climate, physiography, economy, social, cultural and political features. The countries of the region are at different levels of development. Given such circumstances, it would neither be possible nor desirable to encompass the national water development strategy in any single comprehensive model. What is obviously wanting is new approaches and strategies to guide the future courses of actions.

73. Water activities are often split between a number of ministries. This fragmentation of responsibilities among sectoral ministries and administrative agencies have hindered co-ordination and impeded the attempts to integrate water management activities.

74. The question of maintaining equilibrium on the extent of centralization or decentralization of responsibilities being left for local and national adaptation, there has been a generally successful trend towards designation of some national focal point, or centre with responsibility for the management of water resources. Another useful instrument to assist in the implementation of multi-sectoral programmes which many countries are adopting as the basic planning unit is the hydrologic geographical unit or the river basin unit.

75. Water use efficiency is a subject of concern to a large majority of countries and relates to all sectors, as it sets excessive demand on the resource itself and implies increased investment in infrastructures and operational costs. This has been observed in the occurrence of excessive linkages reported in the distribution systems of many countries in Africa. The problem is of particular significance in agriculture and more so in irrigation which has a heavy demand for water. For many countries in Africa where irrigation is increasingly gaining prominence, the overall rational use of water is key to development. Demand management particularly in North African countries (where irrigation is relatively developed) even if it gives only marginal savings of water could have profound benefits, in the large volumes it releases and in avoiding costs for exploration and development of additional sources.

76. Recently, more and more countries in Africa are embarking upon irrigated agriculture. There are also countries in North Africa which have longer history of irrigation and had experiences of salination which damage soil property. This latter group of countries need to provide in their national strategy a component to combat the threat and to bring about sustainability and increase production potentials. For those countries newly embarking on irrigated agriculture, the incorporation of drainage facilities will be a cost-effective investment. Where appropriate, irrigation development and expansion should take into consideration the possibilities of adopting necessary design and operational factors to incorporate marginal quality of water from effluent or brackish sources into existing and future schemes.

77. Africa most recently suffered from the Great Droughts of 1981-1984. Currently the speculations are that the downward trend in rainfall may continue and set in train the process of accelerated desertification and drought at the same time increasing the frequency of its occurrence. The concept of "drought proofing", reflecting concern over possible climatic changes, is becoming an integral part of planning with increased water conservation measures and crop diversification.

78. There has been a growing concern in many countries of Africa for the control and mitigation of flood damages and associated disasters. Whereas the causes of flood may be varied, there are strong linkages between land management in upper catchments, land-use policies in flood-prone areas, the costs of flood damages and of its prevention. This obviously places the subject within many national water strategies.

79. Closely linked to the economic difficulties which several countries in Africa are going through is a common problem of maintaining water systems in a state, matching design criteria and meeting operational and efficiency requirements. This applies to all sectors. Emphasis on rehabilitation of inefficient systems, reduction in wastage and unaccounted for water, recycling and reuse of waste water, and improved operation and maintenance can be more cost-effective approaches than investment in new services.

80. The provision and expansion of domestic and municipal water supplies, together with hygiene education is considered to be one of the contributors to the social well being of a community. To be fruitful, this should be accompanied and matched by complementary services for effluent treatment and disposal particularly in the urban centres in Africa where the problem is worsening. It has been noted that the overwhelming routine and continuing discharge of industrial wastes without treatment, and the entry of fertilizers and pesticides into surface and ground-water are expanding and intensifying the problem of degraded water quality. The efforts to monitor the situation have been minimal and even the measurement of quantitative hydrological factors are inadequate. On the other hand, the health of the people, and the health of the water bodies is being jeopardized demanding a major strategy that deals with the provision of sanitation and waste disposal and for measuring and monitoring the hydrological status and quality aspects of rivers, lakes and ground-water.

81. Water is a commodity to be paid for. The cost of providing water services to various user sectors must be met by the beneficiaries or by the community - and usually by a mix of the two. In applying the principle of cost recovery or a degree of financial autonomy in a scheme, two important points need consideration. The first is the guaranteeing of reliability of the supply system for users to accept the principle and secondly the ability to adjust charges to meet the costs of supply.

82. With the institutional and administrative changes that have been introduced to keep pace with water management, all countries are discovering the need to adapt their legislation to match more dynamic and more demanding circumstances. Inadequate legislation has often been a serious impediment to water development or its optimal use. Of equal importance to the formulation of enabling legislation is the need to establish mechanisms to enforce its provisions.

83. The dearth of adequate human resources, with training, skills and experience in the scientific, technical, managerial and administrative functions required for the development, conservation and management of water resources forms a crucial constraint in the strategy proposals of almost all the countries in the African region. Since the Water Conference, attention has been given to the

development of human resources and experience shows that the efforts must continue. It is worth noting that a promising trend is being developed in some countries towards a more positive involvement of local communities in the conservation and management of their natural resources and the environment. This mobilization of popular participation, with able organizers and appropriate information support, may offer a great opportunity for sustainable management of resources. A national campaign to stimulate such action could give a strong impetus to the implementation of the strategy at the country level.

84. The Water Conference represented a unique assembly of knowledge and experience in all water related fields. It provided a frame of reference which is still valid from which the present update does not fundamentally differ. However based on experiences unfolded since 1977, the following are identified as priority areas for action within the individual national water strategy for the 1990s.

Action at national level

85. The increasing population continues to set a heavy demand on land and other natural resources and induce conflicting and competing use on water because of changing needs. But so also has the environmental degradation continued its impact on sustainable socio-economic development as illustrated by the Kampala Declaration of June 1989, following the African Regional Conference on Environment and Sustainable Development. (24) A key issue to halt and reverse the environmental degradation, is the management of natural resources at the local level by maintaining linkages and interactions between the various actors. The fundamental philosophy upholds that the planet's resources are finite and the technological tools to exploit these resources are limited at any particular time. Therefore, basically the emphasis is on the management of land and water as finite resources and on the co-

ordination and integration of water, land-use, and population policies for sustainable development.

86. The weaknesses in the linkages between water sector planning and national planning at the macro-level and project planning at the micro-level persists. The Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) which most countries in the region are implementing is putting pressure on them to appropriately relate the water plans with National Development Plans in view of SAP's requirement to balance the internal and external accounts. The essence of planning should be in integration of sectoral plans and programmes with overall water resources management within the framework of national socio-economic objectives. This is to be accompanied by the establishment of institutional and organizational arrangements, including an appropriate form of national water resources centre to facilitate this.

87. The meteorological and hydrological services have run down badly in the past ten years for various reasons particularly for lack of adequate funding. They are in urgent need of rehabilitation and expansion. The UNESCO/WMO National Evaluation of Water Resources Assessment activities and the UNDP/World Bank sub-Saharan Africa Hydrological Assessment identify actions that should be taken in each country. The improvement or, where necessary, the introduction of systematic measurement and monitoring of water quantity and quality, in both surface and ground-water sources is essential in the light of concerns regarding global atmospheric warming, and the increasing demand on the resource.

88. As a result of the debt burden and the economic difficulties of the African countries, investment funds for water projects have diminished. Operation and maintenance funds have either been curtailed or removed under the Structural Adjustment Programme. The flow of external investment funds have been slowing down since 1983 partly as a result of the difficulties of meeting debt-service obligations. The problems call for:

(a) The development and introduction of practical measures towards scheme autonomy and cost recovery in conjunction with greater efficiency and reliability of water supply to the various users.

(b) Increased attention and investment in measures to improve water use efficiency and to reduce wastage, damage to natural resources, and the rehabilitation of infrastructures.

89. During the drought many countries lived through a cycle of austerity or contingency plans to the detriment of normal programmed work. The establishment of the Emergency Relief Organizations on a more permanent basis would curb the problem of diverting resources to meet crisis conditions and would enable to act in all kinds of disasters like floods, droughts and earthquakes, etc.

90. A strong emphasis lies in overall planning for drought conditions and water conservation in water scarce areas, and for the mitigation of flood damages.

91. The fluctuation in food and agricultural production due to meteorological variations persists. The most effective remedial measure aimed at contributing to stabilize production is the Early Warning System which is being installed in many countries. The present distribution and contribution of irrigation to food and agricultural production has not changed, as the region is still a net importer of cereals, the one crop to which 5s per cent of the land under irrigation is devoted. Current funding is going into rehabilitation and expansion of existing schemes. At the same time the economic viability of modern irrigation schemes is constrained by high costs of construction, operation and maintenance, and by poor production performance leading to low overall benefit of irrigation projects. Therefore critical review is needed of the role irrigation should play in the national strategies for food and agricultural production having regard to climate, land, water and human resources.

92. Urgent action needs to be taken to provide adequate waste water treatment disposal and reuse, to complement the expansion of water supply systems.

93. Redesign of legislation, and the mechanisms for its effective application are invaluable to meet present and future water management needs.

94. The share of education in the national recurrent budget has been falling since 1981. The regional average fell from 20 per cent in 1981 to 9.9 per cent in 1988. Subsequently the annual rate of growth of enrolment in the primary, secondary and tertiary levels have fallen over the 1980-1987 period as compared with the period 1970-1980. The current trends show that there is need for training in planning, project identification and preparation, project implementation, project monitoring and evaluation. A cost-effective way to train technicians on a continuous basis will be to set up training schools which can train technicians for the various subsectors of water.

95. The resources of the departments of community development, health and education need to be increased to enable them intensify their mass education campaigns at the local level and thereby secure the participation of local communities in the management and conservation of water resources, and to increase the awareness of the value of water among production sector users.

International support

96. the international community has been following closely and supporting activities geared to the use and development of water resources in Africa.

97. As regards community water supply, the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD) 1981-1990, has evolved a network of External Support Agencies (ESAs) with a Collaborative Council for the purpose of stimulating action in the sector. The Council brings together multilateral and bilateral agencies, banks, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and members from developing countries. Of the water use sectors those for industrial and energy purposes are the ones that most attract necessary external support for their water developments from commercially-backed sources. Other development aspects of like drinking water and agriculture are generally subordinated to the user sectors. A very vital area in Africa where assistance is most needed is the domain of agriculture. For this sector an International Action Programme on Water and Sustainable Agricultural Development (IAP-WASAD), which proposes similar collaborative arrangements like that for drinking water, has been formulated by FAO, in co-operation with other organizations of the United Nations system, as a strategy for the implementation of the Mar del Plata Action Plan (MPAP) during the 1990s and beyond. These initiatives are in keeping with the growing concern of the poor performance of the agriculture sector during the last one and a half decades which did not measure up to expectations such that it required massive collaborative efforts to assist the developing countries.

98. The neglect of the management of water resources by the national and international community and the inadequate efforts towards the technical and managerial capacity-building for the development and conservation of water resources could partly explain the reasons for limited achievement in the realization of the MPAP, especially of its long-term objectives. In terms of the strategy, the definition of "the allocation of and development of resources in pursuit of an objective" which has not been responded to in the past, now need to be translated into action so that the "strategy for the 1990s" may be put into effect.

99. The establishment of a collaborative mechanism to maintain close linkages by means of strengthening the capacity for the management of water resources through the national co-ordinating bodies (National Water Resources Centres) and the corresponding regional and global arrangements and programmes in support of these efforts is central.

100. Within the United Nations system the co-ordination and co-operation being maintained by the ACC Inter-secretariat Group for Water Resources which has been instrumental will continue its activities. In particular, interagency efforts will be concentrated on agreed action programmes concerning water for sustainable agricultural development, water resources assessment, water quality, human resources development, and water resources management, based on the outcomes of the regional assessments carried out for the formulation of the proposed strategy for the 1990s.

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I. BACKGROUND

1. By resolution 44/228 of September 1989, the General Assembly of the United Nations took the decision to hold a Conference on Environment and Development in Brazil, to coincide with World Environment Day in June 1992. Nine issues of global concern will be discussed at the Conference. They include:

(a) Protection of the quality and supply of fresh water resources;

(b) Protection of the ocean and all kinds of seas, including enclosed and semi-enclosed seas and coastal areas, the protection and rational use and development of their living resources;

(c) Conservation of biological diversity;

(d) Environmentally sound management of bio-technology;

(e) Environmentally sound management of wastes, particularly hazardous wastes, toxic chemicals and the prevention of illegal traffic in toxic and dangerous products and wastes;

(f) Protection of human health conditions and improvement of the quality of life;

(g) Protection of the atmosphere by combating climate change, depletion of the ozone layer and trans-boundary air pollution;

(h) Protection and management of land resources by, inter alia, combating deforestation, desertification and drought;

(i) Improvement of the living and working environment of the poor in urban slums and rural areas, through eradicating poverty, inter alia, by implementing integrated rural and urban development programmes, taking other appropriate measures at all levels necessary to stem the degradation of the environment.

II. AFRICAN ENVIRONMENT AGENDA (AEA)

2. Sustainable development, as stated in the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, must enable the enhancement of harmonious human relationships with natural resources to endure over time, and to adapt to changing conditions. Such development optimizes the capacity of the environment to meet the needs of people as defined by them, generating more security at the highest attainable living standard for an indefinite period.

3. Although all the issues for UNCED are of global concern, their regional manifestations and, consequently, specific regional approaches to the solution of related problems are bound to slightly differ. In the light of this, while participating in the management of global environmental concerns, the guiding principles in relating these issues to those of Africa are well defined in the different African initiatives mentioned above.

4. Within this context, an African Environment Agenda (AEA) has emerged. It reflects the environmental aspirations enshrined in the Monrovia Declaration on social and economic development of Africa, the Lagos Plan of Action as well as Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER), the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development (UN-PAAERD) and the programme of the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN). These formed the basis for the implementation of the recommendations of the World Commission on Environment and Development that gave birth to the Kampala Agenda for Action Towards Sustainable Development in Africa

(1989) and the Bamako Commitment to Environment and Sustainable Development (1991). They should, therefore, dictate the tone of activities in the region to promote environment and sustainable development. The African Environment Agenda comprises the following:

A. Sectoral issues

5. The key sectors that the African Environment Agenda addresses concern the basic necessities of life, namely food, shelter and clothing. In other words, those basic needs that every citizen must have access to for sustainable development to be of any meaning. The accessibility by all to the following would ensure the satisfaction of these basic needs:

(a) Food self-sufficiency and food security;

(b) Efficient and equitable use of water resources, including marine and coastal resources;

(c) Securing greater energy self-sufficiency;

(d) Optimizing industrial production and pollution control;

(e) Maintaining species and ecosystems;

(f) Protection and management of land resources with emphasis on preventing and reversing desertification as well as environmentally sound development of mineral resources;

(g) Managing demographic change and population pressures.

B. Inter-sectoral issues

6. Apart from the sectoral issues, there are many inter-sectoral ones which must accompany the sectoral issues if lasting results are to be achieved. They include:

(a) Development and strengthening of environmental awareness;

(b) Development of environmental legislation;

(c) Popular participation and the democratization of environmental action including the enhancement of the role of and the opportunities for women and NGOs;

(d) Development and strengthening of institutional manpower capabilities for sustaining the carrying capacity of resources;

(e) Integration of environmental dimensions in economic development planning as a matter of policy;

(f) Security, environment and sustainable development.

III. ISSUES OF THE AFRICAN ENVIRONMENT AGENDA AND UNCED-1992

7. In the light of the foregoing, it will be important to prepare for UNCED-1992 by critically examining:

(a) The impacts on the environment and sustainable development of the structure and functioning of African economies: The impacts on the environment and sustainable development of the structure and functioning of African economies have been demonstrated in APPER, UN-PAAERD and AAF-SAP. To fully understand the implications of the UNCED issues with regard to the African Environment Agenda, the Conference of Ministers and Preparatory Conference are called upon to review the situation against the background of the important role of environmental management in development programme conceptualization and implementation for sustainable development;

(b) UNCED-1992 and the African Agenda for Environment and Sustainable Development in the region: By the African Agenda as indicated above, it is understood to mean the aggregation of all the various declarations and resolutions made by member States on the environment from the Monrovia Declaration (1979) to the Lagos Plan of Action (1980), the resolutions on APPER and UN-PAAERD which have been integrated into the Agenda for Action Towards Sustainable Development in Africa which was adopted in Kampala, Uganda, in June 1989 and the Bamako Commitment to Environment and Sustainable Development made during the OAU Pan-African Conference on Environment and Sustainable Development held in Bamako, Mali, from 23 to 30 January 1991. It is important that the Conference takes into account the regional specificities of the issues and places them within the context of global environmental management.

IV. AFRICAN ENVIRONMENTAL INITIATIVES

8. Africa has not been totally inactive in the field of environmental management even if the identification of priorities have not tallied identically with those elsewhere. This gives Africa the starting point and helps to demonstrate Africa's potential to be involved in regional as well as global environmental concerns and emerging issues to which it is, in one way or another, party. The Conference is called upon to take this into account both in the preparatory process and in the discussions of programme activities that will form the negotiating package.

A. National programmes

9. Various national programmes have been initiated by member States either directly by the Ministry or department responsible for environmental matters, by local parastatals or by local NGOs. All these national programmes involve collective national political will that should serve as a basis for a strong regional strategy for strengthening Africa's bargaining position with external development agencies and the international community; the pooling of limited national resources to support large-cost programmes; the effective exchange of information among member States as well as the facilitation of the acquisition of environmental technologies and skills on national, subregional and regional bases.

10. The successful implementation of the programmes/projects identified above at all levels requires the mobilization and efficient utilization of requisite resources. These resources are financial, human, physical and technological, and they have to be mobilized at national, subregional and regional as well as international levels. As the environmental problems to be eliminated or controlled are enormous and urgent, the corresponding volume of resources required, their relevant sources and the time frame for their mobilization need to be elaborated at various stages.

11. African Governments have the primary responsibility to provide the enabling environment, both political and economic. They must in addition provide the political space for NGOs and popular participation in environmental conservation.

12. The NGOs, particularly the rural ones, are the most valuable base for mobilizing popular participation in environmental management for sustainable ecological conservation. They have their roots

in the population, as voluntary organizations which, in most cases, are outside political influence and can ensure democratization in the choice of priorities and the strategies for their implementation.

13. Popular participation in development is the key demonstration of the democratization of decision-making, resource mobilization for national development programme implementation and, above all, accountability. This ensures community involvement in income-generating activities and the support of the private sector in the development process.

B. Cross-cutting strategies for enhancing the impacts of sectoral activities

14. The economics of sustainability through environmentally sound development planning in order to sustain an optimum balance between resources, environment and development requires many cross-cutting strategies. Some of these have been indicated under paragraph 7 (a) above in the discussion of each of the nine UNCED-92 issues. In addition, however, the following strategies are also required:

(a) Environmental awareness

15. For the environment issue to acquire governmental concern and involve public participation, the policy- and decision-makers both within and outside the circles of government must be fully aware of the environmental implications of the development programmes they plan and implement. For there to be political will as regards environmental matters, the highest level of government and, therefore, of decision-making must also be environmentally conscious. For all this to happen, environmental education must part of the body-politique of national life, beginning as all education does, from childhood.

(b) Curriculum development

16. Development and integration of environmental education into general education curricula should be undertaken at all levels through the implementation of the Programme of Action for Environmental Education and Training in Africa adopted by African Ministers of Education in 1982. This implies a total review of the present educational curricula to include environmental education and environmental practices such as, where possible, school farms, gardens, zoos, aquaria and all basic practices of environmental conservation.

(c) Literacy campaigns

17. National environmental education and literacy campaign will do much to raise ecological consciousness, reduce environmental damage and abuse as well as mobilize social energies for ecological conservation.

(d) Primary environmental care (PEC)

18. Primary environmental care (PEC) has also been suggested for local communities and rural areas with the effective participation of peasants, workers, women, youth and NGOs as raised in a recent international conference in Vancouver, Canada.

(e) Support to non-governmental organizations

19. There should be the establishment or strengthening of national non-governmental, youth, women, workers and peasant organizations with environmental conservation as an important focus of their activities.

(f) Intra-African exchanges of experience

20. Subregional and regional cooperation in environmental matters should be encouraged. This should be done through the exchange of information, joint training of experts in environmental science and engineering, cooperative research and technological development, pooling of limited financial and other resources as well as the establishment and strengthening of cooperative environmental bodies like the African Ministerial Conference on the Environment (AMCEN), the Permanent Inter-State Committee for Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS), the Intergovernmental Authority on Drought and Desertification (IGADD), the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) and the Conférence ministérielle sur la desertification (COMIDES).

(g) Environmental legislation

21. Environmental management has been difficult in many cases because of the inadequate legislative guidelines for action in all the development sectors that take into account the environmental implications of those activities, without their corresponding sanctions. Various national legislation exists as well as regional conventions and agreements adopted by the member States of the OAU, but not many are operational because they have not been signed and ratified by the required number of member States for them to enter into force. To make up for this deficiency, certain actions must be taken and quickly, too.

(h) Promotion of national environmental legislation

22. There is need for updating national environmental protection legislation as well as regional and international conventions, agreements, protocols, etc., on the subject. Guidelines for the development and implementation of related new legislative instruments need to be provided.

(i) Environmental standards

23. There should be the prescription by legislation for standards relating to products whose chemical composition is likely to be unsafe for human populations and the environment and of safety standards and health requirements in workplaces, especially factories and mines.

(j) Popular participation and democratization of environmental action

24. There is need to create an enabling environment with democratic domestic mechanisms that yield political protection. This involves the broadest participation of the people and their organizations in decision-making and resource allocation at all levels, the maintenance of justice and equity as well as the elimination of civil strife and political instability.

(k) Development and strengthening institutions

25. Special inter-ministerial committees for environment and development that will require prior environmental impact assessments for development activities at local, national, subregional and regional levels should be created.

(l) Addressing the refugee problem

26. Regional and international cooperation in the handling and drastic reduction of Africa's serious refugee problems through the provision of financial, food, medical and other resources, exchange of information and elimination of the major factors like strife, landlessness and hunger that create refugees should be promoted.

(m) Enhancement of opportunities for women

27. The rights, education, training and employment opportunities for women must be enhanced in order to further promote their participation in sustainable development and environmental conservation. They must therefore share in decision-making concerning the use of environmental resources and share the benefits of development. Popular participation programmes in development and environment involving particularly women are also critical for democratizing environmental conservation.

(n) Development of science and technology

28. Greater and more effective international cooperation in all aspects of environmental protection in Africa should be enhanced - funding, technology, research and training, exchange of information, enforcement of legislation and environmental standards (e.g., in commodity trade), elimination of foreign dumping of toxic and other hazardous wastes in African countries, control of atmospheric and water pollution and global warming.

(o) Development of alternative indicators

29. Alternative development indicators that are environmentally preserving and ecological sound should also be used to supplement the rapid economism of GDP and per capita income that conceal ecological degradation and encourage excessive exploitation of ecological resources. The Human Development Index of the United Nations is a good example of such an alternative indicator.

30. The responsibility for the suggested action will fall to the relevant Ministries which will be assisted by the international community.

C. Subregional and regional programmes at the sectoral level

31. Subregional and regional programmes must be aimed at strengthening national programmes. To have the desired impact, they should principally be for the expansion, strengthening and coordination of the related national programmes. In particular, major ecological problems like desertification, drought, deforestation, insect invasion, soil erosion, foreign toxic waste dumping and flooding tend to be transnational and, therefore, require subregional and regional initiatives to control. The various subregional and regional programmes identified above offer some scope for cooperation to strengthen or develop integrated programmes at these levels by member States and development agencies. The integrated programmes at national, subregional and regional levels that are feasible for these co-operative endeavours include, among others, the programmes of AMCEN, the OAU, FAO, CILSS, IGADD and SADCC.

D. Pooled subregional and regional resources

32. Subregional and regional intergovernmental organizations provide a rallying force for intra-African cooperation in the solution of environmental problems. The existing ones in Africa are proven initiatives towards this end. It is, therefore, important that, among other things, there be regular financial contributions by member States to subregional and regional ecological agencies like CILSS, IGADD, SADCC and NGOs such as the African Environment Network (ANEN), Friends of the Earth and national NGOs. The OAU should also establish a special environmental conservation fund for dealing with environmental hazards like flooding, pest invasion, drought, etc. This should be paid for by special grants from or levies on member States on an annual basis. The payment of these member States' contributions should be regarded as the real measure of Africa's seriousness about sustainable development and environmental viability. The OAU should also ensure the mobilization of common political will to yield space for popular participation by NGOs and the people in environmental work as well as purposeful contributions (financial, human and other) to subregional and regional initiatives on the African environment.

E. International programmes

33. The increasing depletion of Africa's financial resources by the collapse of its commodity trade, unbearable external debt-service payments, adverse effects of ongoing orthodox structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) and the huge costs of current levels of control of the massive problems of desertification, drought and foreign waste dumping all imply that, on per capita basis, Africa currently has the highest environmental costs. This fact calls for special international consideration in the commitment of resources to Africa's environmental protection. No other region in the world has Africa's vast Sahara Desert and Sahel with their enormous desertification and drought problems. The colossal damage of the Great African Drought of 1983/1985 underscores this point. These call for massive international resources for environmental protection in Africa.

F. New programmes to strengthen ongoing ones

34. Despite Africa's efforts, the goals of sustainable development have been elusive. This item gives a series of actions that need to be taken to achieve sustainability. The assumptions here are that ongoing programmes are implemented as planned so that the proposed ones can strengthen them. The programmes and projects to serve as the framework of activities will be drawn up and will cover all the areas of the African Environment Agenda. Programme activities, with their resource implications, will be proposed for funding.

V. THE AFRICAN ENVIRONMENT AGENDA AND THE SIX UNCED GLOBAL ACTION AREAS

35. Against this background, Africa should be in a good position to discussion of the six UNCED action areas. The legal and institutional framework for global environmental management for sustainability is dealt with in this aspect of the preparatory process. This is the negotiating aspect of UNCED-1992. Based on the conclusions reached under agenda items 5(a) and (b), delegates are called upon to closely examine the possible implications of the strategies being suggested and come up with their own approaches to the UNCED negotiating process. Decision may be taken to ensure a high African participation during the process and at UNCED-1992 itself.

A. Conventions

36. The areas of possible conventions include climate change, bio-diversity, and forestry. These conventions will be negotiated prior to the Conference and signed or agreed to at the Conference, depending on the result of these negotiations.

37. As concerns climate change, the fact must be taken into account that in terms of chloroflurocarbons (CFCs), Africa's contribution is virtually insignificant. This does not, however, mean that it should be neglected; Africa must share in the alternative CFC-free technology which is being developed by the industrialized countries. It must also be underscored that many of the ongoing programmes in the priority areas such as desertification control, afforestation, water resources management and related activities also contribute to the combating climate change.

38. The same arguments go for bio-diversity and forestry. The depletion of Africa's forests and bio-diversity is not just for domestic needs but also for expert earnings. Conventions that seek to conserve bio-diversity and forest resources must have built-in mechanisms for replenishment of any form of compensation that fulfils such ends.

39. Most importantly, it is very likely that some of these conventions might imply, in one way or another, conditionalities on technical assistance and other forms of cooperation. Should that be the case, the circumstances must be well studied within the context of mutual interests.

B. An "Earth Charter" or Declaration

40. An "Earth Charter" or Declaration, setting out the basic principles for the conduct of peoples and nations towards each other and the earth to ensure a sustainable common future, will be signed or adopted. This document is most likely going to be a declaration of commitment to the implementation of the programmes that will be included in "Agenda 21".

C. An agenda for action - "Agenda 21"

41. An agenda for action, "Agenda 21", will provide concrete measures for the implementation of the principles contained in the Earth Charter, through an agreed international work programme in the period following the Conference and leading to the twenty-first century as well as the means required to implement this agenda. This will be a compendium of all the programmes that must have been assembled during the preparatory process and successfully negotiated or committed to in Brazil.

42. The important implication is that Africa must, therefore, be prepared with its package of negotiable programmes that will form part of this Charter. This can only be successfully done if member States prepare updated country reports, identifying ongoing activities, their contribution to such programmes and the contribution of the international community, bilateral or multilateral, in them.

D. Financial resources

43. Financial resources will be needed for the actions provided for in Agenda 21 and to ensure access by developing countries to the new and additional resources they will require to integrate the environmental dimensions into their development policies and practices, including meeting the incremental costs of participating in international environmental agreements. The Global Environmental Facility Fund recently established by the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund, the United Nations Development Programme and the major industrialized countries is an important step in this direction.

44. This increases the urgency for Africa to come up with environmental programmes within the context of regional priorities and the global strategy so as to benefit fully from these financial resources. However, the administration of these resources must not be subjected to any conditionalities that were raised as concerns under A. above.

E. Technology transfer

45. Technology transfer will include measures to ensure favourable access to, and transfer of, environmentally sound technologies, in particular to developing countries, including on concessional and preferential terms. In addition to access to environmentally sound technologies on an equitable and affordable basis, this will include measures to strengthen the capacities required to make effective use of them. The understanding, as far as Africa is concerned, is that this will not mean the literal transfer of technology but the transfer to fill technology gaps and of the capability to develop adaptable technologies and the local manpower capacity that goes with this.

F. Institutions

46. Attention to institutions will emphasize measures for strengthening existing institutions, notably UNEP, the environmental capacities of development agencies and organizations, the process of collaboration

and coordination among them and the machinery to enable environment-development issues to be examined at the policy level in their relationship to other important security, economic, humanitarian and related issues.

47. Integrating environment in development planning for sustainability calls for the active participation of agencies and organizations whose mandates have this as a priority. Thought might need to be given to strengthen the strategy used during the preparatory process for UNCED-1992 whereby the regional commissions, because of their mandates of social and economic development, were given the lead role in the regional preparations.

VI. THE SCENARIO OF PREPARATIONS IN AFRICA FOR UNCED-1992

48. In this spirit, all the groups should be involved in the environmental management decision-making process. These groups include youth, women, non governmental organizations and business, both private and parastatal, must actively contribute to the preparatory process. All country reports should include their inputs. This will ensure that programme strategies are formulated with their participation in order to utilize all available national resources.

49. ECA will organize, with the collaboration of all United Nations agencies, the regional conference for Africa in Cairo, Egypt, from 11 to 16 July 1991. Before then, the following activities have been planned:

(a) Preparation and finalization of conference document

50. The draft contents of the document, Achieving our goals through the environment, which will form Africa's negotiating position, is being prepared. The document draws from the mandates contained in United Nations General Assembly resolution 44/228 on convening the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development. It relates the issues in that resolution to the priorities of the African Environment Agenda and other strategies for the viable social and economic development of the region as adopted at different instances by African Governments. The document is also inspired by the recommendations of the ECA in-house task force which reviewed all these governmental mandates and programmes of action related directly or indirectly to the issues of environment and social and economic development. The draft document also benefitted from the critical review of a group of eminent Africans who are specialists in environment and development.

51. Chapter I places the African preparatory process in the context of the roles of the different parties concerned. Chapter II examines the impacts on environment and sustainable development of the structure and functioning of African economies and, among other things, reviews the implications of orthodox stabilization and structural adjustment programmes as well as the African approach to these programmes. Chapter III brings the UNCED-1992 issues into perspective with the African Agenda for Environment and Sustainable Development. Chapter IV looks at the six UNCED action areas and views how Africa should approach them. Chapter V presents Africa's efforts in environmental management and its contribution to the global environmental management effort. In chapter VI, additional actions that should strengthen ongoing activities are suggested. The African environmental agenda and global follow-up is examined in chapter VII within the context of the activities of the United Nations agencies and the Organization of African Unity. Annex I is presented in three parts: part I is made up of briefs on sectoral projects based on the African Agenda; part II comprises inter-sectoral programmes to stimulate and encourage achievements in the sectors; and part III contains a programme for raising additional resources for the implementation of all the programmes. It is based on the principle that the one who is responsible for environmental degradation should pay for its rehabilitation. Annex II contains the draft Cairo Ministerial Declaration on UNCED and follow-up action.

52. As the Brazil Conference will be an Earth Summit at the level of Heads of State and Government, the document will be ready for presentation to the OAU Council of Ministers and the assembly of Heads of State and Government in June 1991, from which a mandate will be received to have the final version reviewed by the Ministers of the Environment, intergovernmental organizations and NGOs during the Regional Preparatory Conference in Cairo in July 1991.

(b) Promotional activities

53. To promote the understanding of the major environmental issues in Africa of the African preparatory process for UNCED-92, a number of promotional activities are foreseen. ECA, in collaboration with agencies of the United Nations system, is developing the following:

(a) Fact sheet series to be distributed to the independent sector and government offices of member States. It is planned to produce the first issue of the fact sheets for distribution before the Regional Preparatory Conference. From then on, there will be subsequent issues every two months until UNCED in June 1992;

(b) Leaflet, to be produced by ECA after the African preparatory meeting, with the "African position" on environmental matters. The leaflet would have wide distribution within and outside Africa, primarily, but not exclusively, to the government and independent sectors;

(c) Radio interview/documentary series, to be produced by ECA in cooperation with the United Nations Department of Public Information in New York and the OAU. As much as possible following the frequency and themes covered by the fact sheet series, the radio programmes would include interviews with government, independent sector and intergovernmental agencies officials;

(d) Film/video: Resources permitting, a 15-minute long documentary on the African environment will be produced for presentation at UNCED.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

54. Although all the nine issues for UNCED-1992 are of concern to Africa, not all command the same priority interest. While addressing all these issues, therefore, emphasis must be given to those that are of pressing concern to the region. There are global problems to which Africa shares in the blame such as climate change and ozone depletion. However, the modalities for solution cannot be unilaterally prescribed across the board. It is in this spirit that the regional preparatory process is capital to the success of UNCED-1992. This should be the thrust of preparations in Africa.

55. Cooperation between developed countries and the developing world will be one of the focuses of the discussion at the Conference. Participating in this dialogue will be representatives of governments, business, voluntary environmental groups, youth, science and labour. The outcome of the Conference will be global inputs to a UNCED-1992 follow-up programme which will be contained in Agenda 21.

56. Africa must, under these circumstances, purposefully discuss African approaches to its pressing environmental problems. Thereafter, to actively participate in concrete terms in the dialogue regarding the global approach, its own priorities must be clear and practicable. Within the framework of self-reliant development interests, the priorities and strategies that are chosen must be developed to facilitate global environmental management and the international flow of resources for that purpose.

57. Most importantly, institutions must be developed for the training of manpower capabilities and administrative structures that will practically reinforce environmental monitoring, assessment and evaluation. This must be a matter of policy.

58. This 1992 Conference must be considered within the context of the situation that will obtain in the rest of the world thereafter. Africa must, therefore, come out with a position for the Conference which will reflect its understanding of the issues as they affect it and the determination to effectively address them.

59. On this note, participants are requested to fully participate in the preparatory process by:

(a) Assisting in the writing of country reports and forwarding them to ECA immediately;

(b) Disseminating the ideas contained in this document, within the context of their environments;

(c) Participating actively at all related meetings;

(d) Encouraging the active participation of NGOs, youth and women's organizations in the preparatory process and in the main conferences, both in Cairo and in Brazil.

60. With this preparation package, it is hoped that Africa will make a strong representation at UNCED-1992.

Annex

DRAFT PROVISIONAL ANNOTATED AGENDA FOR THE REGIONAL PREPARATORY CONFERENCE

United Nations Conference on Environment and Development

African Regional Preparatory Conference

Cairo, Egypt
11 - 16 July 1991

DRAFT PROVISIONAL ANNOTATED AGENDA

1. Opening of the meeting

The opening ceremony shall be carried out in close consultation with the host government.

2. Election of the Bureau

The Bureau of the Conference shall be made up of one Chairman, four Vice-Chairmen, one rapporteur, two assistant rapporteurs.

3. Adoption of the agenda and programme of work

The Conference shall adopt its agenda, guided by the drafts submitted to it as well as a programme of work, taking into account the working hours of the host country.

4. Presentation of the working document(s)

A member of the ECA secretariat shall present the working document(s).

5. Discussions on the document

(a) The impacts on the environment and sustainable development of the structure and functioning of African economies (chapter II)

This chapter of the document examines the impacts on the environment and sustainable development of the structure and functioning of African economies. To fully understand the implications of the UNCED issues as well as the six action areas, the Conference is called upon to fully discuss this agenda item. It is crucial to the appreciation of the important role of environmental management in development programme conceptualization and implementation for sustainability.

(b) UNCED-1992 and the African Agenda for Environment and Sustainable Development (chapter III)

By the African Agenda, it is understood to mean the aggregation of all the various declarations and resolutions made by member States on the environment from the Monrovia Declaration (1979) to the Lagos Plan of Action (1980), the resolutions on APPER and UN-PAAERD which have been integrated into the Agenda for Action Towards Sustainable Development in Africa which was adopted in Kampala, Uganda in

June 1989 and the Bamako Commitment to Environment and Sustainable Development made during the OAU Pan-African Conference on Environment and Sustainable Development, held in Bamako, Mali, from 23 to 30 January 1991. It is important that the Conference takes into account the regional specificities of the issues and places them within the context of global environmental management, akin to the approaches evoked under agenda item 5(c).

(e) The African Agenda and the six UNCED global action areas (chapter IV).

The legal and institutional framework for global environmental management for sustainability is dealt with in this chapter. This is the negotiating aspect of UNCED-1992. Based on the conclusions reached under agenda items 5(a) and (b), delegates are called upon to closely examine the possible implications of the strategies being suggested and come up with their own approaches to the UNCED negotiating process. Decision may be taken to ensure a high African participation during the process and at UNCED-1992 itself.

(d) Programmes within the context of African environmental initiatives (chapter V)

Africa has not been totally inactive in the field of environmental management even if the identification of priorities has not tallied identically with those elsewhere. This is a confidence-building agenda item to demonstrate Africa's potential to be involved in regional as well as global environmental concerns and emerging issues to which it is, in one way or another, party. The Conference is called upon to take this into account both in the preparatory process and in the discussions of the programme activities in the annex of the working document.

(e) Additional programmes to strengthen ongoing ones (chapter VI)

Despite Africa's efforts, the goals of sustainable development have been elusive. This item gives a series of actions that need to be taken to achieve sustainability. The assumptions here are that ongoing programmes are implemented as planned so that the proposed ones can strengthen them. The programmes/projects in annex I are drawn from the narratives in this item. Delegates are expected to make their inputs to the proposals.

(f) The African Agenda and global follow-up (chapter VII)

To facilitate the global environmental agenda, African environmental initiatives must be a coherent part of the global agenda. Some strategies as would facilitate this are the subject of this item. Delegates are expected to examine them and make inputs thereto.

(g) Programme activity profiles (annex I to the document ECA/ENV/UNCED.2/91(Rev.2))

Programme activities, with their resource implications, have been proposed for funding. The Conference is called upon to review them with the view to making suggestions for their improvement.

(h) Conference Declaration (annex II to the main document ECA/ENV/UNCED.2/91(Rev.2))

The Conference may wish to issue a declaration reiterating their commitment to the implementation of the programmes relating to the issues for UNCED.

6. Issues relating to Africa's participation in UNCED in Brazil 1992

This agenda item is included to ensure that Africa draws up an agenda of participation in all the negotiations regarding conventions and all the matters raised in item 5(c) above.

7. Adoption of the report of the Conference

The Conference shall adopt its report. It is also expected that there will be a Conference declaration on the document which shall then be finalized for submission to the UNCED Preparatory Committee during its August 1991 meeting.

8 Closure of the Conference

The closing ceremonies shall be arranged in close consultation with the host Government.